TOWARDS SUSTAINABLE LECTURERS' LEARNING IN KENYAN PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES

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Dissertation presented for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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MARCH 2017

DECLARATION

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March 2017

ABSTRACT

Studies on lecturers' learning to teach focus mostly on how learning takes place in formal settings. However learning to teach happens in both formal and informal settings. This study answers the question: how do lecturers, based on their own accounts, learn to teach both in formal and in informal settings in private universities in Kenya? The study was mainly explanatory and qualitative in nature. The research approach was abductive in line with realist philosophy. The study, using social realism (morphogenetic approach) as a conceptual and methodological framework, explains lecturers' learning within formal and informal settings. The morphogenetic approach was useful in explaining the interplay between the structural, cultural and personal emergent properties. Twenty-five lecturers were purposively selected and three academic directors were interviewed. The semi-structured interviews were transcribed and the data was coded and analyzed using content analysis. The qualitative software Atlas.ti was used to analyze data.

Lecturers' learning took place in both formal and informal settings. Application of a learner-centered approach, perceived effect on students' learning, affirmation of lecturers' current practices, and lecturers' personal and professional growth were identified as the outcome of lecturers' learning. In formal settings they learned from the facilitator and colleagues but in informal settings they learned from students, colleagues and the wider society. In formal settings, funding was found to be a prior condition to enabling lecturers' learning. The organization of the programmes in terms of facilitation and design were enabling to most lecturers. The practices, the roles played and positions held by lecturers enabled the lecturers' courses of action in informal settings. The Deans' support or lack of it was found to be both enabling and constraining.

University policies, the teaching and learning conditions and the student composition were identified as the structural and cultural factors (systemic conditions) that prompt lecturers to learn to teach. Lecturers were prompted to learn to teach by what they perceived as constraints to students' learning. Student development was the lecturers' main concern but in some cases they cared about their own personal and professional growth. The lecturers mainly learned by being self-aware, committed and intentional.

Both formal and informal settings play a significant role in lecturers' learning. Whereas lecturers acquire knowledge and skills in formal settings, they internalize them in informal settings. Learning in the two settings complement each other in a virtuous cycle. Lecturers as individuals and as a group contribute towards shaping their learning in the two settings. The interplay between the emergent powers in the settings through the reflexive deliberations of lecturers are decisive for their learning to teach effectively. A study on the role personal emergent powers such as values and emotions play in lecturers' learning to teach may be useful in determining more ways of sustaining lecturers' learning how to teach.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My first gratitude is to God Almighty, for giving me strength and grace to work on this thesis.

I thank my supervisor Professor Brenda Leibowitz for your tireless constructive feedback, your patience and understanding, and for the networks that you connected me to without which this thesis would not be what it is. Thank you very much Brenda.

I thank my co-supervisor Professor Eli Bitzer for your constructive feedback on all the chapters, encouragement and guidance throughout the study

My gratitude also goes to the management of Strathmore University for the financial support and giving me time off to work on the thesis.

My colleagues at Strathmore University thank you for your moral support. Special thanks to Dr Vincent Omwenga for accompanying me and assisting me to interview Etienne Wenger on Situated Learning and Communities of Practice.

My thanks to Strathmore Librarians but special thanks to Vincent Chibini for making available all the resources that I needed.

Special thanks go to Professor Faustin Kamuzora (Mzumbe University Tanzania) and Dr. Alfred Kitawi (Strathmore) for their continued concern, critique and constructive feedback. Prof and Alfred thank you very much and God bless. Dr Hellen Otieno (Strathmore) for assisting me to interview my first respondent, providing me with a copy of your thesis and the continued moral support. Hellen it has been a journey for us in which God has been so faithful.

My colleagues in the various universities for accepting to be interviewed, God bless and to all those who transcribed the interviews thank you.

Dr Mike Calvert (York St Johns University UK), you introduced me to better teaching, better learning and the students' learning experience of the PCAP's participants has

never been the same. Mike, you made a big difference in the way lecturers in Private Universities in Kenya teach. God bless.

Special thanks to Dr Aborghast Akidiva for editing my work. God bless.

Last but not least, to the late Dr Byrne for having read my first PHD draft. May God Almighty rest your soul in eternal peace!

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my husband Vincent and our sons Marvin, Roy and Leone for their moral support during the long and many hours that I spent at my desk. I also dedicate it to my Papa Zachary and to the memory of my dear and inspiring Mama Clementina for having taught me that hard work pays and ‘No pain no gain’. Thank you Mama and Papa.

DECLARATION

I declare that this work has not been previously submitted and approved for the award of a degree by this or any other University. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

Mary Odinga Omingo

Signature Date

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ASDP-Academic Staff Development Program

ADPs- Academic Development Programmes

CEPs- Cultural Emergent Properties/powers

CETL-Center of Teaching and Learning

CHE-Commission of Higher Education

CoP-Communities of Practice

CUE-Commission of University Education

DVC-Deputy Vice-Chancellor

ED-Educational Unit

HEA-Higher Education Academy

HERDSA-Higher Education Research and Development Society

HELTASA-Higher Education Learning and Teaching Association of Southern Africa

HoD-Head of Department

LPP-Legitimate Peripheral Participation

PCAP-Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice

PEPs- Personal Emergent Properties/Powers

POD-Professional and Organizational Development

PSOT-Peer Support of Teaching

SEDA-Staff and Educational Development Association

SEPs-Structural Emergent Properties/powers

SoTL- Scholarship of Teaching and Learning

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction and background to the study

In this study, I examined how lecturers learn to teach. Academic staff development as a specific area of expertise emerged in the global North in the 1960s in the United Kingdom (UK), Australasia and United States of America (USA), (Clegg 2009). Depending on regional jurisdiction and institutional context, lecturers' learning to be professional teachers is known and conceived around the world as either educational, academic, faculty, academic staff, professional and instructional development (Gibbs 2013; Quinn 2012; McDonald & Stokley, 2008; Lee & McWilliam, 2008; Camblin & Steger, 2000). Leibowitz et al. (2012) adopt 'being and becoming' to emphasize the continual aspect of lecturers' learning. In this study, I mainly adopt the phrase 'learning to teach' since lecturers' learning goes beyond activities such as courses, seminars and workshops that takes place in formal settings. Lecturers' learning is likely to happen more in informal settings where lecturers spend most of their time (Mårtensson & Roxå, 2015).

Learning to teach is moving away from a simple way of understanding teaching as transmission of knowledge (a teacher-focused approach) to a more complex relativistic and dynamic one (student-focused approach) leading to conceptual development and change in students (Ramsden, 2003; Biggs & Tang, 2011 and Trigwell & Prosser, 1996). Learning to teach is also about changing the lecturers' understanding of their teaching and changing the strategies they use in their teaching to help them apply deep learning approaches (Biggs & Tang, 2011) and/or to transformative learning (Moon, 2007).

1.1.1 Trends in support of learning to teach

I contend that support for lecturers on how to improve students' learning experience is paramount and has evolved through the years. As early as 1949, Tyler described students' learning experience as follows:

> "Learning experience is not the same as the content with which a course deals nor the activities performed by the teacher. Learning experience refers to the interaction between the learner and the external condition in the environments to which he can react. Learning takes place through active behaviour of the student. It is what he does that he learns not what the teacher does"(Tyler, 1971:63).

Sorcinelli et al. (2006) discuss the first academic staff development phase as the 'age of the scholar,' that was from 1950s to early 1960s, where faculty development referred primarily to the practices of improving scholarly competence. This was followed by the 'age of the teacher,' in the mid-60s through the 70s, where there was an expansion of the age of the scholar, which mainly focused attention on improving teaching. Next was 'the age of the developer' in the 1980s which addressed the curricula and the collective as well as individual faculty growth. Then there was the 'age of the learner' in the 1990s when a number of teaching centers increased and currently, the 'age of the network' which is about sharing and collaboration.

According to Gibbs (2013), educational development has changed considerably in the last 40 years in terms of numbers and investment. It has also changed along a series of dimensions. One of the dimensions is from a focus on the classroom to a focus on the learning environment. Another one is from a focus on individual teachers to a focus on groups at departmental level. Other changes include: from a focus on teaching to a focus on learning, from quality assurance to quality enhancement and from a focus on fine-tuning of current practice to transforming practice in new directions. In this study I show that although lecturers mainly learn at the individual level in formal settings they are likely to continually learn in informal settings. Further, lecturers' learning is a form of quality enhancement which is in line with Gibbs' (2013) observation.

Conceptually, Gibbs (2013) argues that lecturers' learning has also changed in terms of being sociological rather than psychological and theoretical rather than atheoretical, that is, based on common sense or intuition. In this study, I endeavoured to theorize lecturers' learning using the social realist theory. Leibowitz (2016) emphasizes the need to deepen discourse on learning to teach through theorizing, since being atheoretical is insufficient as it does not provide enough guidance to lecturers and professional developers on why they do what they do. Theorizing lecturers' learning in both formal and informal settings could be one of the ways of deepening the discourse on their learning to teach.

In the global North, governments have been at the forefront in encouraging lecturers to grow at personal and professional levels and improve the quality of students' learning. In the United Kingdom (UK), to assure students' learning experiences, there has been national funding, quality assurance audits, the formation of Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA), and the development of Higher Education Academy (HEA) (SEDA & HEA, 2016). Clegg (2009) states that academic development in the UK is becoming a career choice and a field of practice. Likewise in the USA, professional development has been on the rise since the 1990s, leading to the formation of the Professional and Organizational Development (POD) network (POD, 2016). In Australia, national policies on teaching in higher education have played a significant part in having notions of teacher professionalism open for discussion from various educational stakeholders. The formation of Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia (HERDSA) has promoted the development of higher education policy, practice and the study of teaching and learning (HERDSA, 2016).

Volbrecht (2003) points out that there has been increasing professionalism and accreditation of teaching in higher education and professionalization of academic development work itself. Whereas networks such as POD, HERDSA, and SEDA operate at the national level, the International Consortium for Educational Development (ICED) formed in England in 1993 has been at the forefront to promote educational and academic development in higher education world-wide. ICED members are themselves national organizations or networks concerned with promoting good practice in higher education (ICED, 2016).

In Africa, the most observable academic development seems to have happened in South Africa. In South Africa the term academic development was first used in relation to students' development and the objective was mainly social justice and not emphasis on quality as in the global North (Volbrecht, 2003). However, Quinn (2006) affirms that quality assurance requirements seem to have played a significant role in enabling educational development of lecturers in some universities. Boughey (2007) asserts the need for academic development units to be part of quality since quality is about equity and efficiency.

The path to academic development in South Africa emerged in the late 1980s with the massification and diversification of students' participation occurring only after 1994 with the advent of democracy and it was shaped by government policy (Leibowitz, 2016). Since the 1990s, there has been a proliferation of formal academic staff development programmes such as diploma and certificate courses offered by various universities and development of educational units (ED) in various universities (Quinn, 2012). The formation of Higher Education Learning and Teaching Association of Southern Africa (HELTASA) evidently showcases the educational development of lecturers (Quinn, 2006). HELTASA holds conferences on teaching and learning issues every year.

One can therefore conclude that lecturers' learning is an established field whose main objective is to improve students' learning experiences. It has changed in many ways over the last four decades in terms of the practices performed by various educational developers mainly in formal settings. In most countries, lecturers' learning has been and is being supported by government policies, funding agencies and quality assurance entities. Leibowitz (2016) notes that historical events and government interventions and funding agencies have influenced the nature and location of support for lecturers' learning.

1.1.2 Significance of learning to teach in higher education

Today, learning to teach in higher education is important as lecturers work in a more dynamic and super complex world where the student body is diverse in terms of motivation, cultural and educational backgrounds. This makes teaching more demanding when it comes to lecturers preparing learning material, motivating and assessing students (Watkins & Mortimore, 1999; Barnett, 1999 and McLean, 2006). This has been caused by decreased public funding which has led to individual students paying fees. Also opportunities such as regional collaboration and cross border education have enabled more international students to seek admission in universities abroad (Tennant, Cathi & Kaczynski, 2010). Enhanced higher education access has led to more students in universities. Classrooms are full of a diverse range of students, all demanding quality teaching they believe they have paid for and should be receiving (Biggs & Tang, 2011).

This diversity has also led to a considerable range of ability within classes. Alongside the academically committed students are the less academically committed students (Biggs &Tang, 2011). A study on what motivates students to study in higher education by Newstead and Hoskins (2003) revealed that ten percent of the students use it as a stop gap; to avoid work and allow time out to decide on career paths. Sixty-six percent use it as a means to an end, that is, to improve their standard of living and improve their chances to getting a good qualification and a worthwhile job. Twenty-four percent study for personal development, that is, to improve life skills and for self-actualization. Newstead and Hoskins (2003) indicate that most students in higher education are extrinsically rather than intrinsically motivated. The twenty-four percent who are mainly mature age students pose another challenge to the learning and teaching process. Such students are now questioning lecturers' delivery methods and the practicability of their subjects in the real world, as in today's work places problems are not neatly packaged into discipline areas (Ramsden, 2003; Tennant et al., 2010).

Furthermore, the industries that students are likely to work in after their studies are also dynamic. Employers are demanding relevant education from universities: education that is less abstract and meets their needs. According to Mwiti, Ngunjiri and Muchira (2009),

employers prefer employees who are diligent and take initiative; assertive and flexible in working hours and have the drive and passion for success, to those who perform well in routine tasks. Tennant et al. (2010) affirm that the new vision of a contemporary worker is one who continually learns and updates his or her skills. From my experience as a lecturer, I have found that most of the skills taught in universities are academic and technical skills and yet employers now tend to favour 'soft skills' such as teamwork and communication. Students are likely to acquire such skills from the way the lecturers conduct the teaching process rather than from course content. Unfortunately, most lecturers tend to lack such teaching skills.

Learning to teach is also important as institutions of higher education face a myriad of challenges. In Africa, for instance, apart from the high enrolment, they lack both facilities and qualified lecturers. According to Okebukola (2006), the total student enrolment in Nigeria grew from 2000 in 1962 to 500,000 in 2002. In 2006, there were 65 universities consisting of 26 federal, 23 state and 16 private universities. Due to the high demand, limited physical facilities and qualified academic staff to cater for the demand, employers and the general public have increasingly called the quality of programmes into question.

Uganda's situation is not any different. According to Sicherman (2008), Makerere University's problems have been evident for some time. They include: soaring enrolments, grossly inadequate infrastructure to support the huge numbers, salaries calculated to drive staff away and an apparent absence of thought through planning. The Tanzanian university sub-sector has also seen a rapid increase in students' enrollment in the past 20 years. Specifically, the number of university students has expanded from fewer than 10,000 in 1990 to 120,000 at the end of 2012. Similarly, the number of universities and university colleges has increased from two in 1990 to 38 by March 2013 (URT, 2013).

The higher education sector in Kenya has also expanded over the years in terms of student enrolment and the number of universities. The widespread demand for higher education in Kenya was triggered by the massive expansion of primary and secondary education and the increasing sophistication of the economy, which demands a skilled workforce (Mwiria & Partnership for Higher Education in Africa, 2007). Due to the increase

in the population of students, there has been a proliferation of both public and private universities. In Kenya, a public university is a university established and maintained out of public funds while private universities are institutions of higher education that run on students' tuition fee with no funding from the government (Kenya Government, 2012). I find that the distinction between public and private is more in line with the source of funding and less related to the public it serves nor its constituents who in many cases are similar to those in private universities. In addition, unlike public universities, most private universities are also affiliated to a religious institution (CUE, 2016). Whereas in 1994 there were only four public universities and three accredited private universities, as of June 2016, there were a total of 70 universities made up of: 23 public chartered universities and 10 public university constituent colleges, and 17 private chartered universities, five private constituent colleges, 14 institutions with a letter of interim authority and one registered private institution (CUE, 2016). The growth has led to challenges such as inadequate funding of lecturers' salaries and other operational costs by the government and lack of qualified human resources (Teffera & Altbach, 2004).

From 2007 to 2010, for two cohorts, the British Council funded a postgraduate certificate in academic practice programme (PCAP) for lecturers in Kenyan universities. I was privileged to coordinate and attend the PCAP programme that was offered to the second cohort in 2009-2010. As a result some of the universities that participated in the project, including Strathmore University where I teach, initiated various academic staff development activities. At Strathmore University for instance, I initiated and coordinated an academic staff development programme (ASDP) as Registrar of Academic Affairs and Director of the Academic Unit from 2007 to 2014. The implementation of ASDP was ambitious in that the university attempted nothing less than a paradigm shift away from teacher-centered to learner-centered approaches.

As stated in most studies on lecturers' learning and as I indicate in Chapter 3, the initiatives are mainly offered to new lecturers who are still grappling with self-confidence in the course content and teaching task (Warhurst, 2006). The huge workload also limits the amount of time spent on thinking about the students' learning process (Trowler & Knight, 2000). The objective of the initiatives might in some cases not be achieved as

some of the lecturers also do not realize the importance of such initiatives. They attend the academic staff development programmes because attendance is a university requirement and assume that their academic qualifications or what they know about teaching are good enough. Lecturers usually come to appreciate such initiatives much later, albeit late, in their development, when they start taking students' learning into account (McAlpine, Amundsen, Clement & Light, 2009).

The aforementioned issues have been made more complex by expanding numbers and huge workloads which may lead to lecturers underestimating the need to learn about their own teaching (Knight, 2002). In other cases, lecturers easily revert to teacher-centered approaches for fear of loss of classroom control or comfort (Smyth, 2003). Thus, initiatives by various private universities in Kenya require monitoring to sustain lecturers' interest, otherwise they become stale (Stes et al., 2007). Moreover the initiatives are expensive ventures as the required resources, time and money, are scarce. Studies on lecturers' learning, in other parts of the world, show that the intended impact might not be as widespread. For example, Ho, Watkins and Kelly (2001) found that only half the lecturers had changed their conception of teaching a year after training and Bamber (2008) termed the impact as anecdotal. Thus initiating and implementing academic staff development activities to support lecturers' learning might be the easier part but sustaining it is the challenge.

1.2 Description of the problem

There is a belief that lecturers need to learn to teach in higher education, more so, in formal settings. Studies show that professional development opportunities provide informed positions to lecturers and improve students' learning through lecturers' conceptual change and development (Kreber & Brook, 2001;Trigwell & Prosser, 1996). Further, studies show that professional development is an international field of activity with international and national networks, academic staff development units and publications (Leibowitz, 2016).

There is a belief amongst some authorities that a great deal of lecturers' learning happens in informal settings; in the course of events (Mårtensson & Roxå, 2015 ; Knight, Tait and Yorke, 2006; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2007; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Brown, Colins & Daguid, 1989). Lave and Wenger (1991) for example, point out the inadequacies of learning in formal settings, where a teaching curriculum instead of a learning curriculum, full of instructions to learners, can lead to unintended learning outcomes. They recommend situated learning, learning in workplaces, where learning is an everyday activity and takes place in an authentic context, culture and activity, with the available resources making up the learning curriculum (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Brown et al., 1989). Likewise, Knight et al. (2006) argue that although learning in formal settings can evoke learning, embedding that learning in the workplaces is problematic.

However, little is known about how lecturers learn to teach in both formal and in informal settings[1] because the focus has been on one or the other but more so on learning in formal settings. Moreover, how learning in both formal and informal settings occurs in private universities in Kenya has not been explored. Very little information, if any, about how lecturers learn and about why lecturers in private universities in Kenya do what they do has been documented. Most of what is learned remains tacit, as there are no clear channels such as conferences and other networks on higher education (Oanda, Chege, & Wesonga, 2008; Wanzare & Ward, 2000). The tacit knowledge is left untapped and is therefore inaccessible.

Learning to teach in both formal and in informal settings involves individuals in this study: lecturers. The growth in forming an identity and/or practice depends on how the person actively participates in the social world that is made up of 'parts' (culture and structure) and people (agents) (Archer, 2003; Wenger, 1999). Therefore, to better understand how lecturers learn to teach in both formal and informal settings, there is the need for an

[1] In this study I apply the terms formal and informal settings instead of formal and informal learning to adequately capture the structural and cultural factors (parts) in lecturers' ('people') learning to teach. See analytical dualism in Archer 1995. Informal setting as used in this study refers to learning mainly from the work experience and/or work environment in a relatively unstructured way. Whereas learning in formal settings refers to learning from formal, organised programmes.

expanded situated learning theory. Learning to teach in these settings and its potential impact would be better understood from within a realist paradigm, where the interplay between structural, cultural and personal emergent properties is used as an explanatory framework.

Studies by Quinn (2012) and Leibowitz et al. (2015) have applied social realism in examining the enablements and constraints in lecturers' learning at a programme and institutional level respectively. Ssentum (2014) also examines the opportunities and threats to lecturers' learning from a pedagogical workshop. However, this study seeks to analyze the structural and cultural emergent properties that enable and constrain learning to teach in both formal and informal settings and the shortcomings in lecturers' workplaces that may prompt them to learn.

1.3 Aim

In this study, I examined, from a social realist perspective and based on lecturers' own accounts, how lecturers learn to teach in private universities in Kenya. This expands further the existing body of knowledge on lecturers' learning to teach in the context of a developing country and enables practitioners interested in the same, to understand how lecturers learn.

1.4 Research objectives

In order to achieve the aim of the study, the objectives were to:

1. Determine the outcome of lecturers' learning to teach in both formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya.
2. Analyze lecturers' accounts of their learning to teach within formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya.
3. Determine the enablements, constraints, and prompts in lecturers' learning to teach within formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya.

4. Examine the contribution of lecturers in shaping their learning to teach in private universities in Kenya.
5. Establish implications for a framework that might provide learning opportunities for lecturers to learn to teach in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya.

1.5 Research questions

My main research question was: How do lecturers, based on their own accounts, learn to teach in private universities in Kenya?

In relation to the research objectives stated above I was interested in the following research questions:

1. What is the outcome of lecturers' learning to teach in formal settings and informal settings in private universities in Kenya?
2. How do lecturers learn to teach in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya?
3. What structural, cultural and personal emergent powers prompt, enable and constrain lecturers' learning to teach in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya?
4. How does lecturers' agency shape their learning to teach in both formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya?
5. What possible framework can offer learning opportunities to lecturers to teach in private universities in Kenya?

1.6 Research design and methodology

In this study, I chose to use an explanatory design since it was most appropriate in explaining the interplay between structural, cultural and personal emergent powers in lecturers' learning. I endeavoured to analyze structural and cultural emergent properties

that enable and constrain lecturers' learning at the real level of reality and the contribution lecturers make to shape their own learning. The analysis of the causal powers was significant in understanding how lecturers learn to teach in both formal and informal settings.

I used a sample of twenty-five lecturers and four directors from four private universities. Whereas I applied purposive sampling as the main sampling method, I used snowball sampling in one university and random sampling to select lecturers for the teaching observations.

The data collection methods I used in this study were interviews and observations. The interviews were semi- structured in nature and they took almost an hour. In addition to interviews, I collected data from lecture room observations conducted in six lectures. The observations were mainly used as a follow-up on some of the interviews to corroborate what respondents had reported during the interviews but more importantly to gain information about different aspects of lecturers' learning.

I used content analysis to analyze data. A qualitative approach to content analysis begins with deep close reading of text and attempts to uncover the less obvious contextual or concealed content therein (Given, 2008). I coded the data using Atlas.ti, a qualitative software that enabled me to analyze data in the various transcriptions smoothly. I was able to reflect on the emerging sub-categories and themes through the use of tables, network views, memos and reports.

1.7 Ethical considerations

Generally, there was minimal risk in conducting this study since the respondents were lecturers and they willingly volunteered information about their learning experiences. I took extra measures to ensure I conducted the research ethically. At the proposal stage, I sought the participation consent from the four universities. At data collection stage, I

formally informed the respondents of my intention to collect data, the kind of data that I intended to collect and how I was to collect it.

At the analysis stage, I tended to analyze data as I gathered it and used an abductive approach, that is, moving back and forth to capture what the data was telling me. I coded the data across the transcripts to avoid over-segmentation and used memos to capture reflections and theoretical possibilities (Cousin, 2009). I transcribed the first five interviews and sent them to the respective respondents to check whether what I had written was what they had said. To conceal the respondents' identities, I used pseudonyms in identifying the participants in the analysis and discussion chapters and in the dissemination of the findings.

I also endeavoured to have the research conclusions consistent with the theoretical and methodological perspectives. I read relevant journal articles and books on pedagogy and related topics. This enabled me to develop a strong and convincing engagement with literature to underpin the theoretical claims that I made in the conclusions and implications.

1.8 Motivation and significance of the study

A number of motivating factors made me conduct this study. These factors were a combination of personal, intellectual and practical goals. I had worked with lecturers on their teaching since 2007 and in the process there were some questions that required to be answered empirically.

In 2009, I coordinated the aforementioned postgraduate certificate programme in academic practice (PCAP) offered to 35 lecturers from five universities in Kenya. At a personal level, I was curious to find out the benefits of PCAP to date, of academic staff development activities that were taking place in the various universities and how some of those activities could be extended to a national level. Lecturers' learning in most universities in Africa has been disregarded in national and institutional policies as noted by Adesina (2006), the assumption being that excellent academic qualifications result in

effective teaching. Kenya is no exception, given that only primary and secondary school teachers are trained to teach (Wanzare & Ward, 2000). To learn more about lecturers' professional learning, especially at national level, was a motivating factor. According to (Day, 1999), for lecturers to succeed as teaching professionals over a career span, they need more than academic qualifications.

Through this study, I have learnt that lecturers in private universities in Kenya mainly value students' development but a few value their personal and professional growth and most of them value what they learn in both formal and informal settings. At a personal and/or institutional level they strive to enhance students' learning experiences. From my interactions with colleagues from other universities, (during the time I was carrying out this research), a number of us came together and formed an Association of Faculty Enrichment in Learning and Teaching (AFELT). The association is gradually gaining a national outlook. So far the association has forty registered members from both private and public universities. I hope through our interactions as lecturers we shall make a difference to students' learning.

At the beginning of the study, I was only interested in explaining how lecturers learn using situated learning as discussed by Lave and Wenger (1991). However, the application of Archer's social realist theory (1995) to lecturers' learning in formal and informal settings enabled me to engage in a deeper exploration of how lecturers learn to teach in higher education and specifically in private universities in Kenya. The theory enabled me to critically examine the emergent properties or powers that enable and constrain lecturers' learning to teach. Most significant was the role of personal emergent powers (lecturers' agency) such as intentionality and reflexivity.

Furthermore, literature on lecturers' learning in Kenya is scant. I was motivated to undertake a study of this magnitude in order to make theoretical and methodological contributions to scholarship. So far, very little has been documented on learning to teach in higher education Kenya. Most studies on higher education in Kenya are mainly on issues related to public universities and about leadership, access, financing and quality (Oketch 2003; Odhiambo 2016; Mwiria et al., 2007). This study provides data and

information on lecturers' learning in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya which may be useful to a number of stakeholders in higher education.

The study may be of benefit to the Ministry of Education in developing policies on lecturers' learning in their workplaces so as to achieve objectives of the social pillar in the Kenyan Vision [2030] and the Sustainable Development Goals [2030] for quality education. Academic developers may also benefit from this study by learning more on how, whom and what lecturers learn in both formal and informal settings. The structural and cultural emergent powers that enable, constrain and prompt lecturers to learn identified in this study may be useful to academic developers in providing academic staff development initiatives that are relevant to lecturers.

A practical goal was the need to improve and enrich students' learning experience through lecturers' learning in workplaces. To do so, I sought to understand better how lecturers learn in both formal and informal settings. Knowing how, what and whom lecturers learn from has enabled me to take advantage of any learning opportunity that presents itself and where possible, I encourage other lecturers to learn to teach. Deans and other heads of departments could also use the findings of this study in understanding the kind of support that lecturers require to improve students' learning experience.

1.9 Chapter layout of the study

Having provided the background to my study and the purpose, this section outlines how the rest of the chapters are structured to answer the above stated research questions that enabled me meet the stated objectives.

In Chapter 2, I review the theoretical perspective on lecturers' learning to teach. The review is according to the objectives stated in Chapter 1. I briefly examine and review the social realist theory by Archer (1995) and the situated learning theory by Lave and Wenger (1991) and the theory of communities of practice by Wenger (1999).

Chapter 3 explains and discusses the context of the study and university education in Kenya in general and lecturers' learning to teach in private universities in Kenya in particular. In order to illustrate the target group, I present case studies of two private universities, one secular and one affiliated to a religious institution. I discuss their history, mission and vision, academic staff development, management and governance.

In Chapter 4, I explain the research methodology and design: population and sample, data collection methods and data analysis, validation and trustworthiness of the study and the ethical considerations.

In Chapters 5, 6 and 7, I analyze the findings and relate them to the theoretical perspectives covered in Chapter 2. In Chapter 5 the analysis and discussions are on the outcome of lecturers' learning to teach, namely, the affirmation of lecturers' practices, the learner-centered method, students' learning experience and lecturers' personal and professional growth. In Chapter 6, I analyze and discuss the findings of lecturers' learning in formal and informal settings under the headings of: learning opportunities and the enablements, constraints and prompts in lecturers' learning to teach. In Chapter 7, I analyze and discuss the contribution lecturers make in shaping their learning focusing on the importance of intentionality and reflexivity in lecturers' learning to teach.

In Chapter 8, I make conclusions based on the objectives and provide the theoretical and practical implications of the research. In this chapter I also examine the strengths and limitations of this study and provide areas for further research.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

2.0 Introduction

In this chapter I review relevant literature on good or effective teaching so as to understand why lecturers need to learn to teach. Thereafter, I define learning to teach and examine the significance of lecturers' learning in both formal and informal settings. This is followed by a review of literature on lecturers' learning in formal settings and then in informal settings. I then explain, under the theoretical framework, situated learning theory and learning within communities of practice and social realism. Finally I develop a conceptual framework and outline some research gaps.

2.1 Good or effective teaching

If we want to look at how people learn to teach, it is worth considering briefly what is considered to be 'good teaching' in the literature. Studies (Weimer, 2013; Ramsden, 2003; Biggs & Tang, 2011) have identified various factors that relate to good or effective teaching. Ramsden (2003:86) lists the following as principles of good teaching:

i. A desire to share your love of the subject with the students;
ii. Ability to make the material being taught stimulating and interesting;
iii. Facility for engaging with students at their level of understanding;
iv. A capacity to explain the material plainly;
v. Commitment to making it absolutely clear what has to be understood and at what level and why;
vi. Showing concern and respect for students;
vii. Commitment to encouraging student independence;
viii. An ability to improve and adapt to new demands;

ix. Using teaching method and academic tasks that require students to learn thoughtfully, responsibly and cooperatively;
x. Using valid assessment methods;
xi. A focus on key concepts and students' misunderstanding of them rather than covering the ground;
xii. Giving the highest quality feedback on student work;
xiii. A desire to learn from students and other sources about the effects of teaching and how it can be improved.

The above principles of good teaching suggest that effective teaching depends on the kind of relationship that a lecturer creates with his or her students, the teaching method applied, the kind of students' learning activities and the assessment and feedback methods. The aim of effective teaching is for students to achieve the intended learning outcomes, that is what the student should be able to do (Biggs & Tang 2011; Tyler 1971).

Studies also show that underlying effective teaching are values. Rowland (2000) notes that teaching is not a matter of following a set of rules or theories or steps but more a matter of making judgments in the face of conflicting priorities that differ in different situations. These priorities or principles often express our values. Values such as magnanimity or generosity, benevolence and humility, honesty and interest in teaching, and versatility in teaching skills and availability to students, are 'imperative' in students' learning (Ramsden, 2003:95). Havard (2007: xviii) states that magnanimity is about striving for great things and it goes hand in hand with humility. 'Magnanimity generates noble ambitions while humility channels these ambitions into serving others'.

Further, Nixon, Rowland and Walker (2001) note that learning to teach is not just about re-interpretation of academic freedom but a re-orientation of professional values and practice such that the lecturer uses academic freedom as freedom for all. Nixon et al. (2001) list values of care and affection, of critical engagement and dialogue, of public concern and welfare, of equality as the recognition and equal valuing of differences as crucial for lecturers to be effective. They advocate for a professionalism that is

outward looking, inclusive and morally courageous. They state that what is required are not new practices but new evocations of the values underlying those practices.

Furthermore, lecturers are effective in their teaching when they practise the relational model, which is about recognizing the importance and worth of others, 'the focus on the other is not merely an intellectual acknowledgement but a concern for others by being hospitable and thoughtful' (Light, Cox & Calkins, 2009:41). According to Light et al. (2009), people are hospitable when they are open to other peoples' ideas while thoughtfulness is about being 'reflective' and 'critical' and of being ethically sensitive and considerate. Thoughtfulness draws upon the virtues of fidelity and courage. Havard (2007:11) notes that: 'courage is the sacrifice of self for the realization of prudent and just goals'. Light et al. (2009:42) further contend that 'courage requires the recognition and acceptance of one's vulnerability and responsibility to mutually shared freedoms of the other.' The knowledge and skills acquired in formal settings and the interactions with colleagues and students in informal settings are likely to enable lecturers to unearth and live the values mentioned above.

According to Biggs and Tang (2011), the learner-centered approach regards teaching as facilitating students' personal construction of knowledge and conceptual change as appropriate in terms of good teaching. This is in contrast to the teacher–focused conception with a content approach that uses the transmission mode. Weimer (2013) points out that students are likely to learn more and better where teaching: engages students in learning activities that are well designed; motivates and empowers students by giving them some control over the learning process; encourages collaboration; promotes students' reflection about what and how they are learning; and includes explicit learning skills instructions. The 'learner-centered approach is about students' learning and teachers making a contribution that help learning to happen' (Weimer, 2013:13).

For students to experience deep learning approaches, lecturers may need to learn about the learner-centered approach. Biggs and Tang (2011: 25) illustrates what lecturers do to engage students to adopt deep learning approach. Lecturers teach in such a way to bring out the structure of the topic or subject, they assess the structure

rather than independent facts and emphasize depth of learning rather than breadth of coverage. Weimer (2013:10) notes that the learner-centered approach entails: changes in the role of the teacher from that of an expert to that of a guide, changing the balance of power in the classroom that encourages co-operation and collaboration among students, the teacher *uses* content instead of *covering* it and the learner actively constructs knowledge instead of passively receiving it from the teacher, students are more responsible for learning, and evaluation is applied to develop self and peer-assessment skills. But most importantly, transformative learning takes place, that is, changes occur in learners in deep, profound and lasting ways. Where the learner-centered approach is applied, students tend to take responsibility for their learning and make some of the decisions associated with it (Weimer, 2013). Students 'make meaning' instead of just 'making sense' of what they learn (Moon, 2007:143).

2.2 Learning to teach

Our understanding of learning to teach is moving away from a simple way of understanding teaching as the transmission of knowledge (teacher-focused approach) to a more complex, relativistic and dynamic one (student-focused approach) that leads to conceptual development and change in students (Ramsden, 2003; Biggs & Tang, 2011; Trigwell & Prosser, 1996). Learning to teach is also about changing the lecturers' understanding of their teaching, and changing the strategies they use in their teaching to help them apply a student-focused approach that leads to deep learning approaches (Biggs & Tang, 2011) or transformative learning (Moon, 2007).

Lecturers mainly learn to improve their teaching so as to enrich the students' learning experience. As early as 1949, Tyler noted that 'learning experience is the interaction between the learner and the external condition in the environment to which he can react. Learning takes place through the active behaviour of the student: it is what *he* does that he learns, not what the teacher does' (Tyler, 1971:63). This implies that learning to teach is not just learning about techniques that a lecturer can apply in class, it is about applying the knowledge and skills learned in such a way that students are engaged in meaningful

and purposeful activities. Ramsden (2003) states that learning is best conceptualized as a change in the way people understand the world around them rather than an increase of facts.

Learning to teach is referred to as academic, professional, educational and faculty development depending on the regional jurisdictions, institutional context, the history and the meaning the term is supposed to convey (Leibowitz, 2016; Kreber & Brook, 2001). Further, lecturers' learning can either be formal or informal and the processes either intentional or non-intentional (Knight et al., 2006). Although Malcolm, Hodkinson and Colley (2003) acknowledge the distinction between formal and informal learning, they argue that it is not possible to clearly define separate ideal-types of formal and informal learning which bear any relation to actual learning experiences.

Malcolm et al. (2003) further explain the differences between formal and informal learning in terms of learning process, content, purposes and location or settings. In this study, learning to teach, as earlier stated, is mainly differentiated in terms of the location or settings, where the learning takes place. Although studies such as Ssentum (2014), Vorster and Quinn (2012), and Warhurst (2006) mainly associate lecturers' learning with learning in formal settings, it goes beyond the formal activities such as courses, seminars and workshops. Lecturers' learning is likely to happen more in informal settings where lecturers send most of their time (Mårtensson & Roxå, 2015). Generally, learning in formal settings is appropriate for specific learning and informal is appropriate for general learning (Hammerness, Hammond & Bransford, 2005). However, Knight et al. (2006) suggest that more research needs to be carried out on how lecturers learn successful practices.

2.3 The significance of lecturers' learning to teach

Learning to teach is important and necessary for lecturers because teaching is complex. Bransford, Derry, Berliner and Hammerness (2005) point out that teaching is never routine, it has multiple goals, it is conducted with very diverse groups of students and it requires multiple kinds of knowledge to be brought together in an integrated way. Learning to teach enables lecturers to become adaptive experts. Adaptive experts unlike

routine experts change their core competencies and continually expand the breadth and depth of their expertise (Hammerness & Hammond, 2005). According to Ramsden (2003), the rationale behind learning to teach is to enable lecturers to simplify the above complexity through fusing theory to praxis and applying strategies that engage students in their learning.

Spaces for dialogue in the formal and informal settings enable lecturers to 'make meaning' instead of just 'making sense' of the teaching and learning processes. Through dialogic engagement participants in an academic development programme, for instance, make meaning, confirm and critique some of their teaching practices. In the informal settings, where lecturers feel safe and have trust in colleagues they tend to express their feelings and share experiences, learning in the process (Pifer, Baker & Lunsford, 2015). In essence lecturers 'trade' ideas within and across disciplines in a 'trading zone' as they exchange and borrow ideas (Mills & Huber, 2005:10). According to Paquette, Sommerfeldt and Kent (2015: 32) dialogue is about 'communicative give and take'. Dialogue or communicative action occurs whenever an individual with particular aims communicates with another person in order to arrive at an understanding about the meaning of a common experience so that they may coordinate their actions in pursuing their respective aims' (Mezirow, 1991:65). Habermas and MacCarthy (2007) point out that communicative learning where adults understand the meaning of what others communicate concerning values, ideals and feelings is of great significance in adult learning. Southwood (2012) notes that through dialogue, spaces of development can be opened up and by opening up spaces of dialogue, ways of thinking may be disrupted and re-negotiated, ideas can be deliberated and understanding can be developed as lecturers compare and contrast the challenges they face in teaching. Learning to teach is not only for social connections but also for productive work in a collaborative fashion (Lewis & Usher, 2016).

When lecturers learn, they develop an academic identity, that of scholarly teaching and scholarship of teaching, a facilitator and a reflective professional (Richlin, 2001; Light et al., 2009:16; D'Andrea & Gosling, 2005). Vorster and Quinn's (2012:57) findings show that academic staff development programmes tend to disrupt the lecturers' 'common

sense of understanding about teaching and encourage them to critically reflect on the teaching processes.' Learning to teach, more so in formal settings, is a call to professionalism, that is, 'a call to new ways of thinking about teaching and learning with the aim of transforming it through continual professional reflection' (Light et al., 2009:13).

Exposure to teaching and learning theories and resources to lecturers in the formal settings is the starting point for them to research on various aspects of their teaching and students' learning (Trigwell, Martin, Benjamin & Prosser, 2000). However, Richlin (2001) points out that since the introduction of Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) by Boyer in 1990 scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching and learning remain intertwined. Whereas the purpose of scholarly teaching is mainly to improve students' learning, the scholarship of teaching is about researching teaching and learning and it creates knowledge. A lecturer may practice scholarly teaching without practising the scholarship of teaching. SoTL is inquiry by lecturers into some aspect of or the entire act of teaching using the literature to make transparent how learning is made possible. The aim is to improve teaching and student learning and communicate the findings derived from the research, to others. It puts lecturers back into that inquiring, listening, absorbing and sharing role (Ramsden, 2003; Mills & Huber, 2005; Light & Calkins, 2008; Trigwell et al., 2000). Elton (2009) further states that SoTL aims to achieve not only a unity between the practice of teaching and research into teaching and learning but an overall unity of teaching and research. D'Andrea and Gosling (2007) note that SoTL bridges research and teaching and should therefore be encouraged as it is a lever of change.

Day (1991) classifies knowledge into four types: content or discipline knowledge, which lecturers tend to have; pedagogic knowledge which is the knowledge of generic teaching strategies; pedagogic content knowledge; specialized knowledge on how to present subject content and to support knowledge, that is, knowledge of various disciplines that inform our teaching. In the case of lecturers, knowledge created through research (SoTL) enriches students' learning but at the same time acts as a source of information to other lecturers.

Most lecturers carry out research in their disciplines rather than on the teaching and learning of their disciplines. According to Quinn (2012), some lecturers tend to see no link between their disciplinary research and their teaching and yet SoTL is of significance to one's teaching. Moreover, pedagogy can only be a science in instances where the decisions that lecturers make about teaching and their students' learning are research-based (Pollard, 2010).

Lecturers also tend to be more reflective in a critical way when they learn to teach. Learning in formal settings provides the space and time for lecturers to learn how to be reflective professionals and the learning opportunities in the informal settings also provide the space to do so. Moon (2007:143) in her map of learning and representation of learning, suggests that meaningful reflective learning leading to deep learning approach by the learner, in this case the lecturer, is at the level of 'working with meaning' and 'transformative learning'. Equally, Kahn et al. (2008) state that dialogue in reflective practice, where the participant is drawn by other people to consider new perspectives on their practice, is an integral aspect of pedagogy. Mezirow (1991) points out that reflection enables people to correct distortions in their beliefs and errors in problem solving and the very idea of developing an individual sense of identity centers around the ability to realize one's potential for critical reflection: 'critical reflection involves a critique of the presuppositions on which our beliefs have been built' (Mezirow, 1991:71).

Learning to teach also enhances the lecturers' facilitative role. Vorster and Quinn (2012:55) note that academic staff development programmes enable lecturers to 'develop understanding, knowledge and practices to design curricula and teach in ways which will support access and success to a diverse student body.' Lecturers become facilitators; 'guides on the side' instead of 'the sage on stage'. Weimer (2013:60) notes that 'guides show those who follow the way but those who follow walk on their own'. However, the use of metaphors such as a guide, a coach, or a gardener explains what lecturers *are* but not what they *do* (Weimer 2013:62), and what makes them do what they do to facilitate learning.

However, the facilitative role is not as easy and lecturers tend to apply the teacher-centered approach instead in instances where they have not learned to teach. And even

in cases where they have attended a one day or week event, McAlpine et al. (2009) note that lecturers tend to go back into their comfort zones and apply what they learned about teaching as students. Weimer (2013) notes that lecturers find it difficult to implement the learner-centered approach as facilitating learning involves skills rarely practiced. She further states that facilitating students' participation can be awkward and uncomfortable and since the lecturers only think about their performance, they do not understand why it is awkward (Weimer, 2013:17).

2.4 Learning to teach in formal settings

Support for learning in formal settings tends to be provided by academic developers mostly as: a centralized course on learning to teach in higher education, seminars, workshops, collaborative action research studies on teaching and peer consultation programmes (Kreber & Brook, 2001). The centralized courses last a few days or a week (Cilliers & Herman, 2010; Warhurst, 2006). Additionally, the learning process focuses on learning as predominantly an individual process of construction of knowledge (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2007). The assumption is that lecturers' learning happens naturally over the course of their career. However, Day (1999) asserts that learning from experience alone will ultimately limit lecturers' personal and professional growth. Thus, lecturers need to learn in formal settings as academic staff development programmes tend to disrupt the lecturers' common sense' way of thinking about teaching and students' learning (Vorster & Quinn, 2012).

Although the aims and objectives of learning initiatives in formal settings vary, most of them are designed with a clear focus from the beginning. Amundsen and Wilson (2012) reviewed articles on academic programmes between 1995 and 2008 and found that programmes can be classified as those designed to support a specific outcome or a process. For the programmes designed to support a specific outcome, the focus is normally on skill, method and institutional plans whereas those that are designed to support a process, the focus is on reflection, disciplinary understanding and action research. In their review, they found that articles whose focus was on the coordinated

institutional plans to support teaching improvement predominated (37) and those whose focus was on disciplinary understanding to develop pedagogical knowledge constituted the least (4). The other clusters, in ascending order, were: focus on method (33), focus on reflection (30), focus on action research/inquiry (19) and focus on skills (14).

Initiatives such as academic programmes are not simply academic courses as they have an underlying intention. Bamber (2008) notes that the aim and objective of the courses is to change lecturers and the theory of change underlying the programmes needs to be articulated. One theory of change that Bamber identifies is that of learner- centeredness. Bamber's theory is that, student-focused teachers can lead to better student learning as the learning activities and assessment are aligned to learning outcomes.

For learning to teach in formal settings to have an impact on students' learning lecturers need to learn that a focus on intention needs to be associated with the strategy. This is important as the intention of transmission of knowledge is associated with teacher-centered strategy and that of conceptual change and development with the learner-centered strategy (Trigwell & Prosser, 1996). Applying 'learner-centered strategy' whose intention is transmission of knowledge is likely to be unsuccessful.

Whereas lecturers might know their subject knowledge, they need to acquire professional skills. In formal settings lecturers tend to acquire new knowledge and skills. Wraggs, Haynes, Wragg and Chamberlin (2000) note that teachers have always needed a wide range of subject knowledge and a large repertoire of professional skills. However, the facilitation of the learning need to take into consideration the lecturers' different conceptual levels. Trigwell and Prosser (1996:82) argue that the conception of teaching approach is context dependent and a teacher with a 'higher conception' of teaching requires 'conceptual development' rather than 'conceptual change'.

According to Young (2008), the use of models of learning and theoretical frameworks bring about conceptual development in lecturers. Examples of the content covered in formal programmes include frameworks such as Bloom's taxonomy and Structure of Observed Learning Outcomes (SOLO). A framework such as Bloom's taxonomy provides academic developers with ready-made templates and vocabularies through which it helps

lecturers examine, name and refine their epistemological and ontological frameworks of teaching and learning (Young, 2008).

Specifically, Bloom's taxonomy supplies a vocabulary for lecturers to communicate at various levels of complexity with regard to learning outcomes. Learning is assumed to be sequential, hierarchical and unidirectional. The Structure of Observed Learning Outcomes (SOLO), provides a systematic way of describing how a learner's performance grows in complexity when mastering academic tasks (Biggs & Tang, 2011). The structure invites the view of learning as both quantitative – increase in knowledge, and qualitative - deepening understanding. Having a frame of reference and a shared vocabulary is significant in that lecturers develop a language with which to communicate students' learning and teach in ways which will support access and success to a diverse student body (Vorster & Quinn, 2012).

What drives lecturers to attend the learning initiatives in formal settings also varies. Knight et al. (2006) discuss the various motives as: critical incidents occurring in the course of teaching, for example, in a case where a teaching episode goes wrong or brilliantly, it may spark a desire to find out more. In some cases, lecturers attend formal learning initiatives with an extrinsic motive, such as, learning to get promotion, renewal of contract, conform to faculty requirements and/or interpersonal to work with colleagues and students among others. But some lecturers are actually intrinsically motivated to learn. They are enthusiastic to learn and learn with an aim of doing the job better.

The degree to which lecturers learn in formal settings also varies based on the context. Coburn (2004) discusses how lecturers' responses are influenced by how congruent or incongruent the initiatives are to their needs; how intense and extensive the academic staff development programmes are and the degree of voluntariness in terms of lecturers' attendance. There are instances where learning to engage students might be incongruent with the lecturers' concerns given that in addition to teaching some are engaged in administrative work and/or in research. The initiatives are mainly offered to new lecturers who at the time are still grappling with familiarity with the course content and the teaching task (McAlpine et al., 2009). The huge workload limits the amount of time spent on thinking about the students' learning process (Warhurst, 2006; Trowler & Knight, 2000).

Learning in formal settings tends to have different effects on individuals with different sources and levels of motivation and perhaps from different subject groups. A number of studies, Amundsen and Wilson (2012), Cilliers and Herman (2010), Bamber (2008), Clegg (2009), Ginns, Kitay and Prosser (2008), Kreber and Brook (2001), and Sachs (1997), discuss impact of professional learning courses, either as significant or non-significant and in some cases as reliable or unreliable. Ginns et al. (2008) for example, investigated the changes in experiences of teaching and the scholarship of teaching that could be ascribed to completion of a graduate certificate programme in higher education. Their analysis suggests that interviewees' self-reported experiences following the programme were generally more complex than their previous conceptions. During the first semester, the focus was on the student's experience of teaching and learning through understanding key notions such as students' conceptions and approaches to learning. The second semester unit emphasized the potential not only to draw upon, but also contribute to the scholarship of teaching. The results were significant at several levels. The reported changes in conceptions of teaching and the scholarship of teaching suggested that the programme had a desirable impact on the understanding of most of those academics interviewed.

Another case in point is where Ho, Watkins and Kelly (2001) assessed the impact on lecturers' conceptions of teaching by identifying and comparing the conception of teaching of the participants before and after the programme. Three semi-structured interviews were used to solicit conceptions of teaching espoused by the participant. The pre-programme interview recorded the initial conception of teaching of the participants before they attended the programme. Immediate post-programme interview solicited the immediate impact of the programme. The third delayed post-programme interview was conducted one year later to allow for more lasting changes to be differentiated. The findings were that all teachers whose conceptions changed demonstrated a significant improvement in their teaching practice as conceived by their students but only fifty percent instituted a change in their teaching practices to the extent of inducing a positive change in their students' studying approaches. Ho et al. (2001) point out that it was logical to speculate that a change in conception of teaching of the participants would likely be

accompanied by a change in their teaching practices and would eventually have an effect on the way their students approached studying.

Contrary to the above findings, Stes, Clement and Petegam (2007) in their study, found no firm relationship that could be established between the strength of individual impact and the extent to which respondents also felt inclined to change things at the institutional level. Bamber (2008) found evidence of the impact of lecturer development programmes being anecdotal. She suggests that developers need to gather and interpret a broad spectrum of data within the local context over a long term. They need to treat the lecturers' learning process as complex and avoid linking professional development and student learning directly.

Lecturers' learning in formal settings is limiting. The one - two weeks academic staff development training offered by some institutions may be insufficient for lifelong learning. Most formal learning initiatives assume a one-size-fits-all approach and do not take into consideration all of the motives mentioned earlier. This may result in lecturers responding to the initiatives differently (Sorcinelli, 2006; Coburn, 2004). According to Coburn (2004), in cases where the initiatives are regulated by external parties such as government and commissions, it may lead to defiance, acquiescence and manipulation. If internal management makes it compulsory for staff to attend a workshop or seminar or legitimizes the initiative, this could lead to rejection, parallel structures, assimilation and accommodation and in some cases decoupling, that is, lecturers purport to do it in theory while in practice they do not.

Learning to teach is not an event but a process that never ends (Fullan, 2001; Knight, 1998). In their study, Cilliers and Herman (2010) point out that understanding factors external to formal programmes, that facilitate or hinder the participation of academics in educational development (ED) activities and their utilisation of what they learn at such activities, is central to enhancing the success of such initiatives. They suggest future research on aspects of ED initiatives that are associated with the positive outcomes. This would inform the design of academic programmes as sustaining what lecturers learn in the formal settings can be challenging.

Government funded teacher learning initiatives in the UK, for example, seem to enable lecturers to work on projects related to teaching across disciplines and universities (Higher Education Academy, 2015). The sharing of the findings and experiences on such projects enables lecturers to think and act differently about students' learning (Clegg, 2009). However, the huge workload and limited support to fund initiatives, where lecturers can learn to teach, by government and institutions in most African countries is likely to hinder lecturers' personal and professional growth.

Studies show various views about the effectiveness of lecturers' learning in formal settings. Sachs (1997) and Clegg (2009) note that teacher training in higher education in Australia and the United Kingdom respectively has transformed teachers in distinctive ways. However, Hardy et al. (2010) in their study across continents recommend that initiatives should be relevant to local needs if they are to lead to distinctive practice. Thus there is a need to support lecturers' learning over time by involving them in the policies that affect them. Further Brew and Cahir (2014) note that the focus or objective of lecturers' learning in formal settings changes with government policy as most of the learning initiatives in formal settings are funded by the Australian government. Warhurst (2006) suggests the need for lecturers to be able to engage in professional development that is collaborative and meaningful. It should be collaborative to reduce isolation and enhance the quality of the work produced. However, Pifer et al. (2015), Field (2015) and Thomson (2015) show the need to extend lecturers' learning to informal settings as lecturers spent most of their time in informal settings where most of the learning takes place.

2.5 Learning to teach in informal settings

Learning in informal settings is about learning from other people, from personal experience, workplace activities, working alongside others, tackling challenging tasks and working with clients (Tennant et al., 2010). Unlike the concept of learning to teach in formal settings which implies a 'deficit model' Boud and Brew (2013:210), learning in

informal settings takes place in authentic everyday activities in the lecturers' workplaces. Learning in workplaces takes place at various levels and forms. It could be individual or collaborative learning. According to Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2007), a significant proportion of teacher learning in schools occurs through collaborative interactions with others. They note that teachers learn from fellow teachers, students and people outside work.

According to Eraut (2004), in the informal settings, learning does not just take place when new knowledge is introduced; it mainly does when one interacts with a new situation. Lecturers learn because students' learning is about their role, identity and purpose as lecturers since they are judged according to students' learning. Boud and Brew (2013: 214) state that the most compelling learning occurs when it is seen by the lecturer as needed in order to do their work, 'when learning is an imperative not an option'.

Workplaces play a significant role in learning. Rienties and Hosein (2015) note that lecturers find informal settings important outlets as through significant networks and meaningful conversations they share their feelings, challenges, and frustrations about their teaching and their experiences on the academic development programme. However, Eraut (2011) states that although, seventy to ninety percent of learning takes place in informal settings, it is treated as an occasional by-product. Boud and Brew (2013) corroborate the point that the most powerful influence on learning to teach is not the provision of learning opportunities but changing work demands in the informal settings.

Learning in informal settings is mainly unintentional. Eraut (2000) notes that learning in informal settings is normally considered as part of people's work. It is knowledge of contexts and organization which is often acquired through the process of socialization. Lave and Wenger (1991) refer to the unintentional informal learning in the workplaces as situated learning. 'It is learning by being and doing in the social world; it is an everyday activity' (Lave & Wenger, 1991:35). Knight (1998) and Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2007) state that learning in informal settings is likely to be a more significant response in confronting professional obsolescence as the focus is on learning through participation in everyday practices. Boud and Brew (2013) propose that the development of academics

needs to focus on utilizing opportunities in everyday work. It should continuously be embedded in the daily rhythm of work (Knight et al. 2006). Learning to teach in informal settings, therefore, calls for knowledge to be learnt in authentic contexts, where it is appropriately understood and applied (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Various factors such as context of learning affect learning at workplaces. According to Billet (2006) cited in (Tenant et al., 2010), affordances in workplaces include: degree of routine, degree of discretion, range of complexity of activities and working with others. Additionally, learning in informal settings is likely to thrive in workplaces that are expansive. In contrast to restrictive workplaces, learning in expansive workplaces is valued and planned into the work process. The nature of work requires the use of a wide variety of knowledge and a culture of sharing knowledge and expertise (Fuller, Hodkinson, Hodkinson & Unwin, 2005).

In informal settings, lecturers are likely to learn through various forms such as: reflective practice, peer support and informal conversations. Reflection is 'a generic term for those intellectual and affective activities in which individuals engage to explore their experiences in order to lead to new understanding and appreciation' (Boud et al., 1985:14). According to Eraut (2000) and Kolb (1984), experiential learning involves deriving explicit knowledge through reflection on experiences. According to Boud et al. (1985) reflection mainly happens at the unconscious level and unconscious processes do not allow people to be active and aware of their learning. However, conscious reflection is important for learning as it results in new knowledge and ideas and it enables one to re-examine more basic assumptions and draw deeper insights. Boud et al. (1985:19) state that 'it is only when we bring our ideas to our consciousness that we evaluate them and begin to make choices about what we do and what we will not do.' Thus learners need to be aware of the role of reflection in learning and how the processes involved can be facilitated.

Reflective practice, although associated with an individual, tends to happen either in-action or on-action involving other people. Schön (1991:276) differentiates between reflection in-action and reflection on-action as:

> 'Reflection in-action occurs in association with action and guides the process of action via knowledge in use while reflection on-action is the form of reflection that occurs after action and relates via verbalized or non-verbalized thought to the action that the person has taken.'

Schön (1991) notes that when practitioners reflect in-action, they describe their own intuitive understanding. Therefore, there is a need for others to help him or her to see what he or she avoids seeing. Argyris and Schön (1974:6) also state that when someone is asked how he would behave under certain circumstances, the answer he or she usually gives is his or her 'espoused theory of action for that situation, that is, the theory of action to which he gives allegiance and which upon request he communicates to the others.' However the theory that actually governs his or her action is his or her theory-in-use. They assert that 'We cannot learn what someone's theory-in-use is simply by asking him, we must construct his theory–in–use from observation of his behaviour' (p.7). In relation to lecturers' learning, it could happen during teaching observations.

Kolb's model (1984) as explained by Boud et al. (1985:12) emphasizes the important part that informal settings play in the learning process. In Kolb's model, learning is conceived as a 4-stage cycle: (i) immediate concrete experience is the basis for (ii) observation and reflections. These observations are (iii) assimilated into a theory from which (iv) new implications for action can be deduced and these implications or hypotheses are used to indicate new experiences. All these are likely to mainly happen when lecturers intentionally learn in informal settings.

Peer Support of Observation of Teaching (PSOT) is one of the forms of peer support review that entails reflective practice. It enables lecturers to learn from peers (Gosling et al., 2009). Unlike other peer support review types such as: mentoring, coaching, reviewing course materials, integrating and interpreting instructional information, PSOT is conducted at the point of production, that is, during curriculum delivery assisted by a colleague (Samson & McCrea, 2008). Moreover, teaching is a service and services are perishable; they cannot be stored. Therefore to improve, teaching has to be tapped at the production point, that is, in class through PSOT (Blackmore & Wilson, 2005).

A number of benefits accrue from PSOT to both the observer and the observed. According to Fullerton (2003), some of the benefits include: insights into what helps learners to learn and what happens in effective teaching sessions; and discussion, collaboration and exchange of ideas and mutual support between colleagues. Similarly (Mikui, 2013) states that lecturers find PSOT useful as it enhances their teaching through self-reflection and constructive talk among peers. Samson and McCrea (2008) suggest the importance of PSOT as the provision of a forum for all participants to discuss instruction tips.

Pertaining to limitations of PSOT, (Fullerton, 2003) indicates that the PSOT process causes nervousness in both the observer and the observed. As a process, it impinges on the emotions, ego and professionalism of the observed. A case in point is when the observed are asked to explain either the challenges and/or benefits of PSOT, they apply terms such as 'I didn't *feel natural*', 'it undermines *colleagues confidence,'* 'I learn quite a lot from observing - not so much from being observed; people are too *kind',* (Blackmore & Wilson, 2005:227).

Post-observation discussions rarely take place or if they do some lecturers find them intimidating. Informal conversations among lecturers about their teaching are 'safer' as they take place as lecturers go about doing their day-to-day work. Thomson (2015) states that conversations about teaching include informal (unstructured), self-initiated dialogue between academic colleagues. The features of the informal conversations that differentiate them from formal academic development include: serendipity, improvisation, an open agenda and risk taking (Thomson, 2015). Boud and Brew (2012) argue that activity placed away from grounded sites of practice may not reflect sufficient academic workplace cultures. Thus conversations that happen in departmental corridors and in the café' are 'effective for workplace learning as they are authentic, engaged and provide access to colleagues' (Thomson, 2015:140).

Most of the learning in informal settings happens in departments. Trowler and Knight (2000), Thomson (2015) and Pifer et al. (2015) show that departments play an important role in lecturers' learning in informal settings. Trowler and Knight (2000) emphasize the importance of departments, particularly the leadership, as central to successful professional development. Whereas challenges of interpersonal and relational aspects

such as intimidation, discrimination and inequity may hinder learning, Pifer et al. (2015) point out that academic departments are a crucial location of interaction that shape lecturers' perception experiences, success and satisfaction. However, Roxå and Mårtensson (2015) claim that it is not necessarily the departmental context that is the most central unit of analysis but micro cultures such as institutionalized traditions, norms and recurrent actions in workgroups that influence the interactions between formal development activities and informal learning during day-to-day practices.

Thus learning in formal and informal settings, as explained in the above sections differs mainly in terms of location, focus, the objective and kind of learning. The differences are outlined in table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1: Comparison between learning in formal and informal settings

	Learning in formal settings	*Learning in informal settings*
Location	Centralized	Decentralized: it happens during everyday activities
Focus	Clear from the beginning	Impromptu
Objective	Designed to support an outcome or a process	None
Kind of learning	Mainly intentional and at the individual level	Mainly unintentional and collaborative

2.6 Theoretical framework

2.6.1 Situated learning theory and communities of practice

Learning to teach in informal settings is informed by situated learning theory as discussed by Lave and Wenger (1991) and learning within communities of practice (CoP) as discussed by Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1999).

Situated learning theory takes as its focus the relationship between learning and the social situation in which learning occurs. Learning in informal settings is a process that takes place in a participatory framework and not in an individual's mind; knowing is connected to the doing (Lave & Wenger, 1991). On examining situated learning, Brown et al. (1989) argue that learning is situated, being in part a product of the activity, context and culture in which it is developed and used.

Lave and Wenger (1991) apply social practice theory, in which learning is viewed as an aspect of all activities as opposed to one where learning is reified as one kind of activity. It is an everyday activity where the wider process or the social world is a crucial locus for transformation. Lave and Wenger (1991) affirm that change cannot happen in an individual's mind but through active participation by the person in a community of practice (CoP) where the person, the world and the practice are in a relationship. A CoP is defined as a group of people who share a concern and a set of problems and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis; it is a shared history of learning (Wenger, 1999; Lave & Wenger, 1991). There is anecdotal evidence that where circulation of knowledge among peers or near peers is possible, it spreads exceedingly rapidly and effectively, (Lave & Wenger 1991). They move the focus of analysis away from teaching onto the structuring of a community's learning resources and recommend a learning curriculum instead of a teaching curriculum.

According to Wenger (1999), a CoP is an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge. In a community of practice, knowledge *for, in* and *of* practice exists. Hammerness, Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005:382) explain 'knowledge *for'* as: what lecturers may need to rely upon in developing their practice such as subject matter

content; 'knowledge *in'*, is what accomplished lecturers know. It is expressed in their practice, their reflection and their narratives. 'Knowledge *of*' practice emphasizes the relationship between knowledge and practice and the theoretical aspects of both. The social structure of this practice, its power relations and its condition for legitimacy define possibilities for learning.

Wenger (1999) describes the dimensions of relationships within a CoP as mutual engagement of participants, joint enterprise resulting from collective processes and a shared repertoire of communal resources. Mutual engagement is important in the development of a practice and when people pursue a project together they share some significant learning (Wenger, 1999). Practice exists because people are engaged in actions of meanings which they negotiate with one another. Though in a CoP, there are people of diverse ages, aspirations, attitudes and problems, communities are important learning avenues in workplaces as there is mutual engagement amongst participants and their individual contributions result in a practice (Wenger, 1999). Hansman (2001) suggests that a CoP can provide adult educators with tools to redesign workplace and school learning to allow these communities to form.

Although mutual engagement creates mutual relationships among people, it is not synonymous with homogeneity. Wenger (1999) maintains that shared practice does not in itself imply harmony or collaboration as mutual relationships are likely to give rise to differentiation as opposed to homogeneity in learning. The participants can compete and/or collaborate but what is important is that they learn, as learning is about belonging to a community and/or constructing a personal identity, transformation, developing a practice and experiencing the world as meaningful in order to achieve one's vision (Sachs, 1997; Wenger, 1999; Warhurst, 2006).

What is also important in the formation of a CoP is a common need that might require people to collaborate (Wenger, 1999). Although homogeneity and collaboration are not fundamental concepts in a community of practice, Wenger points out that collaboration could be reconstructed from the basic elements of a community of practice such as identity and practice. He further states that people should be engaged in practice rather than being its object to effectively learn in their workplace.

2.6.1.1 Learning as practice

Learning as practice is about doing but not just doing in and of itself. Boud and Brew (2013) note that practice integrates through linking thinking with doing, and people with contexts. According to Wenger (1999:5), it is doing in a historical and social context that gives structure and meaning to what we do. Wenger further argues that if learning is an integral part of our everyday life and a way of being in the social world, then, to learn, a person has to negotiate and renegotiate meaning through active participation in the world. Wenger explains that negotiation of meaning involves participation and reification. One cannot learn if one does not participate and learning would not have taken place if there is nothing tangible to show that it took place. Thus participation is fundamental because through participation, people recognize themselves in each other and they project themselves onto the world about their experiences and meanings through 'thingness' which Wenger (1999:57) refers to as reification. Wenger (1999:56) describes participation as 'doing, talking, thinking, feeling and belonging to a practice while reification is about the production of tools, symbols, stories, terms and concepts that reify something of that practice in a congealed form.'

Boud and Brew (2013) advocate for viewing learning from a practice perspective, which occurs in informal settings. According to Boud and Brew (2013), the practice orientation goes beyond acknowledging the importance of activities and agency and focuses attention on the nature of associations connecting people and artefacts. Boud and Brew (2013) explain that from a practice perspective, learning focuses on: what is done and what needs to be done and not on individuals enacting the doing; changing work requirements that create a variety of interactions and a range of contexts, addressing wider concerns and not only solving immediate problems.

Therefore, learning as practice has broad implications for what it takes to understand and support learning in individuals, communities and organizations (Wenger, 1999; Boud & Brew, 2013). Learning as practice for individuals means that learning is a matter of utilizing learning opportunities created by the work itself and contributing to the practices

of their communities holistically, not as individuals. For communities, it means that learning is a matter of refining the communities of practice and ensuring that new generations of members provide opportunities to groups of people to extend the practice. For organizations, learning is a matter of sustaining the interconnected communities of practice through which an organization becomes effective and valuable as an organization (Wenger, 1999; Boud & Brew, 2013).

2.6.1.2 Learning as transformation or identity

Learning as transformation, where it is successful over time should lead to change, both at social and personal levels. The change is who we are and it exists not as an object in and of itself but in the constant work of negotiating the self (Wenger, 1999). The negotiated experience of self is in terms of participation and reification. As people participate in their workplaces, they change who they are and artifacts act as proof that they have changed.

Lecturers develop along many other dimensions that Wenger (1999) describes as a layering of events over the years, in addition to acquiring knowledge and skills. The change in lecturers could be from teacher-focused to student-focused learning. As reflective practitioners, they constantly try to find out what the effects of instruction are on learning in the light of evidence collected (Bamber, 2008; Ramsden, 2003). They develop as professionals, scholars and practitioners within a subject matter context; as change agents, as nurturers and as moral agents (Hammerness & Hammond, 2005).

Furthermore, transformation occurs when people make meaning. Mezirow (1991) asserts that making meaning is central to what learning is all about and it is what brings about transformation. Mezirow (1991) states that transformation theory seeks to explain the way adult learning is structured and to determine by what processes the frames of reference through which we view and interpret our experience (meaning perspective) are changed or transformed. It assumes that meaning exists within ourselves rather than in external forms such as books and that the personal meanings that we attribute to our experience

are acquired and validated through human interaction and communication. Our action towards things are based on the meaning that the things have for us. These meanings are handled in and modified through the interpretation process that we use in dealing with things we encounter. As far as any particular individual is concerned, the nature of a thing or event consists of the meaning that the individual gives it. In transformative learning, we reinterpret an old experience or a new one from a new set of expectations, thus giving a new meaning and perspective to the old experience.

Wenger (1999: 150) describes identity as a 'negotiated experience of self' that arises from the interplay of participation and reification in communities of practice. Through the interplay, one's experience of life becomes one's identity. Wenger (1999:155) further explains an identity as 'fundamentally temporal and continuously developing as people are always simultaneously dealing with specific situations, participating in histories of certain practices and involved in becoming certain persons.' Thus the development and transformation of identities are an integral aspect of learning in workplaces and in the formation of practice. To learn one has to 'become,' that is, 'learning changes who we are and creates personal histories of becoming in the context of our communities of practice' (Wenger, 1999: 5).

2.6.1.3 Limitations of situated learning theory and communities of practice

Learning in informal settings as illustrated by situated learning theory has some limitations. Firstly, it does not consider learning in formal settings. Lave and Wenger (1991) refrain from any systematic treatment of schooling in situated learning. They differentiate between learning and teaching curricula and state that while a learning curriculum utilizes the available learning resources, a teaching curriculum is full of instructions which may lead to unintended learning outcomes. However, Lave and Wenger (1991) suggest that the analysis of school learning as situated requires a multilayered view of how knowing and learning are part of social practice. They recommend an investigation of the world of schooling and the world of adults generally. In this study it was found necessary to consider lecturers' learning in both formal and informal settings.

Secondly, 'learning is the engine of practice and practice is the history of that learning' as communities of practice (CoP) evolve over a period of time (Wenger 1999:96), Wenger further argues that since learning is the only aspect that can explain the development of CoP, then learning is a source of social structure; an 'emergent structure'. What Wenger does not discuss is the interplay between the emergent structure and the actors in the social world.

Thirdly, the participatory framework that Lave and Wenger (1991) discuss provides a context in which newcomers initiate their learning trajectories. Lave and Wenger (1991:35) introduce the concept of legitimate peripheral participation (LPP), which they describe as 'an analytical viewpoint on learning; a way of understanding learning in the social world, of how newcomers gain legitimate access from the peripheral to full participation'. However, power, transparency and thus access limits the learning trajectories of newcomers to full participation. Fuller et al. (2005) found the attempt by Lave and Wenger to stretch LPP to cover all workplace learning unconvincing as in some cases even full participants were on an inbound trajectory; they continued learning.

Power, access and transparency in the social world empower and/or dis-empower newcomers' inbound trajectories and old-timers' outbound trajectories. A trajectory is empowering if a person is in a place in which he moves towards more intensive participation while a disempowering trajectory does not allow a person to participate fully (Wenger, 1999). Although Wenger (1999) states that an existing practice and experienced people are likely to be the most influential factors in shaping the learning of newcomers, it might be contrary in practice. Fuller et al. (2005) for example, argue that in teaching, there are newcomers who have been full participants elsewhere and experienced people who are likely to be pushed to the peripheral by various factors. Thus why people act at all or what really motivates them is not very clear within an account of LPP.

Lastly, in the social world, communities of practice are produced and reproduced. The developmental cycles of communities of practice take place because increasing participation, a primary motivation for learning, enables newcomers to become full participants. Lave and Wenger (1991) discuss the problem of continuity and displacement

as newcomers become full participants and displace old timers. They suggest that studies of learning might benefit from examining the field of relations generated by the continuity and displacement contradiction.

Studies on lecturers' learning, have mainly concentrated on a teaching design that supports the teaching process and the outcome (Amundsen & Wilson, 2012). However, in the super-complex world, with many actors, few studies have looked at how lecturers' intentions, have been shaped by the wider social processes. This, Ashwin (2009) acknowledges, has resulted into both a conceptual and methodological problem that necessitates a study on how the wider social practices shape the intentions and not only the perceptions of lecturers in higher education.

2.7. Social realism

Although critical realist (social and critical) philosophy is relevant, in this study, social realism as discussed by Archer (1995, 2000, 2003 & 2007) was found adequate in providing the conceptual framework and methodological approach to investigate how lecturers learn. Central to the critical realist approach to research is that it seeks to identify and explain the causal forces that operate at deeper ontological levels. Realist - unlike other ontologies - seek to identify both the observable and unobservable (Sayer, 2010).

Critical realists view mechanisms, events and experiences as constituting three overlapping domains: real - what exists, actual - what happens; and empirical - what is experienced. They mainly focus on the real. Unlike critical realism which goes further to explain the *why*, social realism was appropriate as the purpose of the study was to analyze lecturers' learning based on their accounts of *how* they learn to teach. Learning to teach is also a social process. Social realism accounts for the emergence of structure, culture and agency. Emergence refers to 'situations in which the conjunction of two of more features or aspects gives rise to new phenomena with properties which are irreducible to those of their constituents even though the latter are necessary for their existence' (Elder Vass, 2010:6).

Central to social realism is the statement that 'the causal power of social forms is mediated through social agency' (Archer, 2003: 2). The critical realist view is that 'causality concerns not a cause-effect relationship but the causal powers or liabilities of objects or relations or more generally their ways of acting or mechanism' (Sayer, 2000:104). Structure, culture and agency are seen as distinct strata of reality; bearers of quite different properties and powers. According to Sayer (2000), powers and liabilities can exist whether or not they are being exercised or not. 'Causal powers and liabilities may thus be attributed to objects independently of any particular event' (Sayer, 2000:105). However, structural and cultural factors ultimately emerge from the interactions of people and are efficacious only through people and only then are their social forms reified (Archer, 2007).

The task of the morphogenetic approach is to supply an account of how the powers of the 'parts' condition the projects of the 'people'- 'involuntaristically but also non-deterministically yet nonetheless with directionality' (Archer, 1995:201). It is also 'a tool kit for developing the analytical histories of emergence of particular social formations, institutional structures, and organizational forms' (Archer, 2010: 274). Archer (1995) applies the morphogenetic approach as a methodology to explain the interplay between structure, culture and agency. Archer separates 'parts' and 'people' in what she refers to as analytical dualism. Morphogenesis refers to 'those processes which tend to elaborate or change a system's given form, structure or state and morphostasis to processes in a complex system that tend to preserve (Buckley, 1967:58 cited by Archer 2010:274). As an explanatory framework, the morphogenetic approach endorses a stratified ontology for structures, cultures and agents because each has emergent and irreducible properties and powers—and explains every social outcome as the product of their interplay (Archer, 1995). Archer (1995) discusses how outcomes which can be broadly reproductory (morphostatic) or largely transformatory (morphogenetic), depend upon the intertwining of structure, culture, and agency.

2.7.1 Morphogenetic approach

The morphogenetic approach on the interplay between structure, culture and agency as discussed by Archer (1995, 2000, 2003, & 2007) can be applied to explain how lecturers after learning act at all or differently. Structures and cultures enable or constrain the inbound, outbound, and peripheral to full participation trajectories of adult learners since the structures are objective and they shape peoples' intentions while agency is subjective (Wenger, 1999; Hibbert et al., 2010).

According to Archer (2010), and Kahn, Qualter and Young (2012) the interplay between structure, culture and agency is important in the construction of identities and the development of practice. Archer (2010) suggests that it is important to account for the forms of interplay between agency and structure that lead to change (morphogenesis) and those that tend to preserve the system (morphostasis). Kahn et al. (2012) recommends a more comprehensive understanding of the interplay between agency and structure in lecturers' learning to teach. This will develop a deeper understanding of the dynamic and shifting aspects of the teaching and learning process and increase the explanatory power of learning (Ashwin, 2009; Kahn et al., 2012).

The morphogenetic approach begins by emphasizing that we are indeed dealing with emergent properties in the analysis of structure, culture and agency. Thus the morphogenetic approach is about three kinds of cycles, namely: morphogenesis of structure, morphogenesis of culture and morphogenesis of agency, each of which has relative autonomy and yet interacts with the others (Archer, 1995:193). The morphogenesis of structure entails structural conditioning, social interaction and structural elaboration (Archer, 1995). The morphogenesis of culture entails cultural conditioning, socio-cultural interaction and cultural elaboration (Archer, 1995). The morphogenesis of agency entails socio-cultural conditioning of groups, group interaction and group elaboration (Archer, 1995: 194). The interplay between structure, culture and agency as per the above cycles is in three phases.

i. Phase I is about conditioning at time one (T^1) to present time (T^2): It is about contextual conditioning which pinpoints the processes guiding action in a particular direction;
ii. Phase II, Social interaction (T^2-T^3): Its concern is to establish the reality of the structure via the causal criterion;
iii. Phase III, Elaboration (T^4): Its concern is to go beyond the condition for transformation versus reproduction in general and to account for the actual configuration of social elaboration;

Archer (2003) argues that the effects of culture and structure are mediated by agency. Archer (2003) further explains the mediation process by stressing the role of the interplay between subjectivity and objectivity in the social world, but more so the role that agency plays, in the following three stages:

1. Structural and cultural properties objectively shape the situations which agents confront involuntarily and possess generative powers of constraint and enablement in relation to agents' concerns as subjectively defined,
2. Constraints and enablements become activated in association with agents' own constellations of concerns as subjectively defined in relation to the three orders of natural reality: nature, practice and society,
3. Courses of action are produced through the reflexive deliberations of agents who subjectively determine their practical projects in relation to their objective circumstances.

The three-step mediation process emphasizes the importance of agents' concerns and their reflexive deliberations in the three phases of the morphogenetic cycles of structure, culture and agency. The first step of conceptualization of the mediation of agency to structural emergent powers (SEPs) and cultural emergent powers (CEPs) consists of specifications of how the SEPs and CEPs condition but do not determine the agents' interests and provide direction to agents' courses of actions. The SEPs and CEPs objectively shape the situations such that they have the capacity to operate as enablements and constraints (Archer, 2003).

2.7.1.1 Morphogenesis of structure and culture

The review in this section concerns mainly how situations ranging from the accessing of resources to the prevalence of beliefs that agents confront involuntarily are objectively shaped. What Archer (2003) stresses is that agency itself is a bearer of emergent powers. Where congruency exists, the situations are conditioned by structure and actualized by agency and where incongruency exists there is structural conditioning which is unrealized by agency.

The morphogenesis of structure and culture as stated above comprises the following phases:

- Structural/cultural conditioning
- Social interaction
- Social elaboration

The three phases are explained in the next subsections.

2.7.1.1.1 Structural and cultural conditioning

In this section, I explain both structural and cultural conditions that form part of the whole. Both are considered as systemic conditions that are objective.

Social structure refers to the innumerable social facts over which an individual does not have much control and which he or she cannot escape (Musolf, 2003). Structural conditioning is an objective influence which conditions action patterns and supplies agents with strategic directional guidance. According to Archer (1995:196), conditioning is a process that involves both 'objective impingement and subjective reception'. The conditional influences are exerted largely through socialization (of habit and associated repertoires of routine action) or through the exercise of reflexivity, entailing deliberation about the appropriate course of action in a given social context (Archer, 2010).

In the morphogenetic cycles, T^1 is a T^4 of the previous cycle as structure and culture necessarily pre-date the action(s) which transform it but the structural elaboration necessarily post-dates those actions (Archer, 1995). In learning situations, for example, the roles of being a lecturer or a head of department pre-date the occupants' action but the occupants as actors (facilitators) lead to changes in students' learning or in the functioning of the department.

Archer states that it is possible to separate the 'parts' and 'people' as the two have different powers and properties, 'Identification of SEPs as parts is possible because of their irreducible character, autonomous influence and relatively enduring character' (Archer, 1995:168). The parts are the structural and cultural conditions which act as enablements and constraints. Archer (2003) also notes that objective conditions ('parts') as constraints and enablements per se, that is, as entities, do not impinge on the situations that people confront involuntarily. It is structural emergent powers (SEPs) and cultural emergent powers (CEPs) that enable, and constrain people. According to Elder Vass (2010:6), emergent powers only exist when the parts concerned are organized into the type of whole that has these powers.

At T^1 SEPs and CEPs pre-date people's actions and thus form the starting point for a new morphogenetic cycle. Archer (1995:185-188) describes SEPs as 'distributions, roles, institutional structures and social systems and CEPs as propositions, theories or doctrines.' SEPs are as a result of internal relations between various structures that make up a particular social system. These SEPs are first order emergent properties from the previous morphogenetic cycle (T^4). SEPs are different from other emergent properties in that they are primarily dependent on physical and human material resources. SEPs are mainly material while CEPs are ideational. Archer (2003: 2) explains the characteristics of SEPs and CEPs as: 'temporal priority, relative autonomy, enduring and causal efficacy *vis a vis* members of society'.

Given their pre-existence, structural and cultural emergent powers shape the social environment that agents inhabit involuntarily. The significance of involuntary placements is that the situations encountered by agents bestow different sections of society with different vested interests in the following ways. Firstly, either the agents enjoy distributive

privileges, rewarding roles or institutional facilitation or their opposite. Nothing binds them in either case, apart from incurring opportunity costs associated with the repudiation of privileges and earning bonuses to those who take advantage of material resources (Archer, 1995). Secondly, their different privileges associated with them means that the same course of action is differentially costly to groups in dissimilar situations. Nevertheless, society may supply their situational reasons or motives, incentives/disincentives; bonuses and penalties, but it is the agents who find them good, which means better than any other course of action that they may have been inclined to adopt.

Essentially agents' actions are conditioned but not determined through vested interests. Archer (2003) explains that agents have vested interests in the maintenance of privileges or the transformation of what they are deprived of. Vested interests are 'the means by which SEPs exert a conditional influence in subsequent actions' (Archer, 2003:137). Agents' vested interests are objective features of their situations that predispose them to different courses of action and even towards different life courses. Archer gives an example of someone who decides to have a baby before going to university. Initially, while her vested interests were in pursuing higher education, her life course changes when she gives birth. Vested interests are associated with a position. In higher education, the position of a lecturer has vested interests in improving students' learning and growing personally and/or professionally.

But vested interests have associated opportunity costs and bonuses. Opportunity costs 'are pursuant of projects that are antipathetic to vested interests' (Archer, 1995: 136). For example, when a lecturer chooses not to take advantage of the learning opportunities provided by institutions she/he incurs an opportunity cost. Archer (2003:136) states that objective opportunity costs are associated with the rejection of privileges, rewarding roles and institutional facilitation, which means that 'the effects of opportunity costs are real.' The effect of opportunity costs is significant as they exert their influence through the allocation of different costs to the same course of action to those who are differently situated and secondly upon which projects can be entertained (Archer, 1995). Lecturers, for example, are differently situated in terms of institutions, departments and disciplines

and even in terms of resources such as time, workload and material resources. Being differently situated according to Archer (2003), is influential as it assigns different opportunity costs to the same course of action. The different courses of action in terms of learning from the formal settings, in the case of a lecturer, might be to attend or not attend the learning sessions; participate or not participate in the discussions; implement or not implement what was learned during the training.

The opportunity costs incurred by lecturers undertaking the above mentioned courses of action are likely to affect them in two ways leading to different courses of action. Firstly, differential opportunity costs affect the ease or difficulty of undertaking the same course of action for groups who are differently situated. Secondly, they condition which projects are entertained by agents. However, the effect depends on the decisions made by the agents. Archer (1995:137) argues that:

> 'Although the effects of opportunity costs are real, the agents are likely to incur them depending on when they have no intention of changing the benefits they have. Whether they incur opportunity costs or not but accrue bonuses instead, the decision remains the agent's.'

The shaping of situations by objective conditions discussed so far has focused on why vested interests are defended or promoted by agents. However, the kind of courses of action that promote or defend the vested interests are not known. The shaping of agents' situations by SEPs and CEPs also includes 'strategic guidance' (Archer 1995:213). Although there are always degrees of interpretive freedom for agents about which courses of action to undertake, structural and cultural conditioning also objectively influences agents by supplying them with strategic directional guidance. Archer suggests that a closer examination of different ways in which systemic properties characterized by tensions and coherence (complementarities or incompatibilities) between and within SEPs and CEPs can give greater precision to the manner in which situations are shaped for the agents involved.

The relationships between the results of the results of past action (second order emergent powers) are particularly relevant to morphogenesis and morphostasis. Whereas the incidence of complementarities serves to identify the potential loci of systemic reproduction, the occurrence of incompatibilities serves to identify the potential loci of systemic transformation (Archer, 1995). Archer (1995) identifies the following kinds of relationships between and within SEPs and CEPs.

1) Necessary (internally) related to one another, while others are only contingently (externally) related, and
2) Then the relationships may be those of complementarity and incompatibility.

The four situational configurations leading to four situational logics of protection, compromise, elimination and opportunism are shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Structural conditioning of strategic action: processes of directional guidance (Archer, 1995:218)

Relationships between and within (SEPs)	*Complementarities/Compatible*	*Incompatibilities*
Necessary	Protection	Compromise
Contingent	Opportunism	Elimination

The lecturer/student relationship is internal and necessary as a student cannot exist without a lecturer and vice versa. An introduction of a formal programme such as a postgraduate certificate or diploma in academic practice, to lecturers by another institution, could lead to a situational logic of opportunism as it will be contingent but compatible with the intent of the institutions. The situational logics are likely to motivate different strategic actions amongst large sections of the population. Archer (1995) states that all situational logics motivate different forms of strategic action by predisposing different sections of the population to see their interests served by defensive, concession, competitive or opportunistic modes of interaction with other groups.

The various situational logics are briefly explained below.

Situational logic of protection

The relationship between or within the SEPs is necessary and internal but in case there is cohesion or complementarities, the strategy acquired by the actors is that of protecting their interests. The strategy leads to no change or morphostasis as the actors are interested in maintaining the status quo. In universities, for example, where heads of department prefer lecturers to improve their academic qualifications (PH.Ds) only and not professional qualifications a situational logic of protection is likely to prevail.

Situational logic of compromise

The relationship is that of necessary incompatibilities and the strategy acquired by most actors is a compromise. Although the relationship is internal with no external influence, there exists some contradiction in the actors' vested interests. Thus a potential for change exists as the actors strive to promote their interests (Archer, 1995). A situational logic of compromise might prevail in situations where lecturers take a particular course of action to satisfy a requirement by the faculty such as preparing a course outline to meet the faculty's requirements instead of students and lecturers using it as a learning tool or a road map for learning purposes. In such a case, although the situational logic of compromise exists, the temporal priority of structural conditions is likely to bring about change.

Archer (1995) argues that since society is an open system, the situational logics of protection and compromise are vulnerable to external forces as they are dependent on finite resources. Any externally injected resources are likely to cause unease in such situations. Additionally, situational logics of protection and compromise, against losses, are effectively an internal calculus whose binding power weakens if some and usually the marginal can make new gains through external relationships, thus the need to exploit situational logics which are contingent.

Situational logic of elimination

This configuration arises precisely because society is an open system and no formation is tightly sealed against external influences (Archer, 1995). The relationship is contingent and incompatible to external resources leading to a situational logic of elimination.

Situational logic of opportunism

The relationship in this case is contingent but compatible to external resources leading to a situational logic of pure opportunism for only gains can accrue from their exploitation. Archer (1995) argues that if the situational logics of elimination and opportunism affect a major influx of resources, the result is transformation or morphogenesis. Learning to teach according to Quinn (2006), is influenced at micro, meso and macro levels. At macro-level situational logics of elimination and opportunism are likely to occur in lecturers' learning in instances where there is buy-in by senior management and injection of adequate resources (Leibowitz, 2014).

Cultural conditioning can also be conceptualized as supplying directional strategic guidance for agency in exactly the same terms as what was employed for structure. Archer (1995:229) argues that 'the maintenance of ideas which stands in manifest logical contradictions or complementarity to others, places their holders in different ideational positions' - as is the case depending upon whether ideas are necessary and internally related or whether their relationship is purely contingent. The logical properties of the holders' theories or beliefs create entirely different situational logics for them. These effects mould the context of cultural action and in turn condition different patterns of ideational development. Subsequent socio-cultural interaction is marked in completely different ways by these differences in situational logic. They provide directional guidance which predisposes towards totally different (formal) courses of action (Archer, 1995).

In summary, structural and cultural conditioning entail firstly, shaping of situations in which agents are able to promote vested interests. Although promoting vested interests is at the

agents' discretion, opportunity costs are real such that rejection of vested interests leads to penalties while promotion leads to bonuses.

Secondly, the shaping of situations which agents confront involuntarily is about providing strategic directional guidance. The courses of action that serve in a promotive or defensive capacity are those that lead to protection, compromise, and elimination of vested interests and those that provide opportunities to promote vested interests. The courses of action prioritized as ultimate concerns by agent may either lead to morphostasis or morphogenesis.

2.7.1.1.2 Social interaction: enablements and constraints

The phase of social interaction (T^2-T^3) entails establishing reality of structure and culture via the causal criterion. It is the analysis of how individuals or groups of people depending on the position they occupy respond to inherited constraining and enabling structural and cultural contexts (Archer, 1995). People choose what they do but they make choices from a structurally and culturally generated range of options which they do not choose. According to Archer (2003:137), 'constraints and enablements become activated in association with agents' own constellation of concerns as subjectively defined in relation to the three orders of natural reality: nature, practice and society'.

Archer (2003:140) defines enablements as powers which when intelligently used help agents to 'stay ahead' in terms of the distributional privileges. Archer (2003) argues that there are no constraints and enablements per se, that is, as entities. These are potential causal powers of SEPs and CEPs and it is important to examine which agential powers they impinge upon as properties. Archer (2003) notes that for anything to exert the power of a constraint or an enablement, it has to be congruent or incongruent to agents' courses of action. Additionally, enablements require intelligent co-operation from agents as the agents' creative deliberation is necessary, while constraints need compliance from the agents as the agents have powers to circumvent a situation (Archer, 2003). An example could be lack of stable leadership (a constraint) that becomes a source of an agentic

response by staff who take it upon themselves to chart a productive way forward in relation to staff development (Leibowitz et al., 2015).

In pursuits of projects driven by concerns held by an individual either from self or society, the emergent structural powers enable or constrain the course of action one undertakes. Quinn (2012) points out some of the structures traditionally associated with universities that may act as enablement and constraints include: schools or departments, deans and heads of department, quality assurance and external examining bodies. Trowler and Knight (2000) argue that leaders can affect the professional learning of all members in their department through cultures expressed in practices and discourses that they promote. Leibowitz et al. (2015) states that quality teaching and uptake of academic staff development is influenced by the following structural and cultural features: history, geography and resources; leadership and administrative processes; beliefs about quality teaching and professional development; the research-teaching relationship; recognition and appraisal.

Further, structural factors such as workload, lack of resources and lecturers' attitudes can be an obstacle in the new lecturers' trajectory in the learning of the teaching process (Kahn, 2009). For example, the workload could constrain the exercise of agency on adoption of the new teaching methods and a programme offered to new academics shapes the concern held by the participants and constrains the course of action open to them. Kahn (2009) acknowledges the need to account for what forms of interplay generate morphogenesis at one extreme and morphostasis on the other, be it at micro, meso or macro level.

Discourses

As mentioned above discourses, as evidence of the body of ideas in a culture, enable or constrain lecturers' learning to teach. Quinn (2012) identifies transformation and critical pedagogy discourses, quality assurance and discourses around teaching and learning as enabling or constraining staff development initiatives. The discourses mainly revolve around the relationships between lecturer and the students, and lecturer and internal and

external environment. For example, whereas quality assurance discourses have had a role to play in lecturers' learning to teach, quality enhancement rather than quality assurance discourses are more enabling (Quinn, 2012). Intellectual elitist discourses where lecturers tend to blame students for poor performance and maintain the status quo are constraining. Transformation discourses where lecturers recognize inadequacies in their current practices and change practices according to the changing higher education context are enabling.

2.7.1.1.3 Structural and cultural elaboration

The causal powers of structures which act as enablers and constraints are activity dependent in both their origin and exercise as social conditioning entails the existence of something that can be conditioned (Archer, 1995). Structural conditioning enables agency to emerge and agency through social interaction elaborates the structure, leading to morphogenesis. The morphogenetic approach can be applied to explain the relationship between the individual and the larger community.

Elaboration is an irreducible third order emergent property. It emerges from the interplay between second order SEPs, CEPs and PEPs, which are themselves emergent from more primitive forms of interplay (first order) between 'the distribution and collectivities (agents) advancing and defending their life chances' (Archer, 1995: 325). First order emergent properties are about results of social interaction, while second order properties constitute the results of the results of necessary and internal relations amongst SEPs, CEPs (situational logics). Third order properties represent the outcome whose consequences are either societal morphogenesis or morphostasis.

The elaboration phase is about transformation or change and maintenance or stability in structure, culture and agency. According to Archer (1995), the aim is to account for the actual configuration of social elaboration. Archer states that what eventually transpires at the level of events is a combination of the tendential and the contingent. The aim cannot be to furnish predictive formulae but rather an explanatory methodology for the researcher to employ, namely the analytical history of emergence, that is, the level at which various

situational logics determine whether morphogenesis or morphostasis takes place. In situations where there is social and system integration that is contingent complementarity or contingent contradiction morphogenesis occurs. Figure 2.2 shows situations when social and system integration results into morphostasis or morphogenesis.

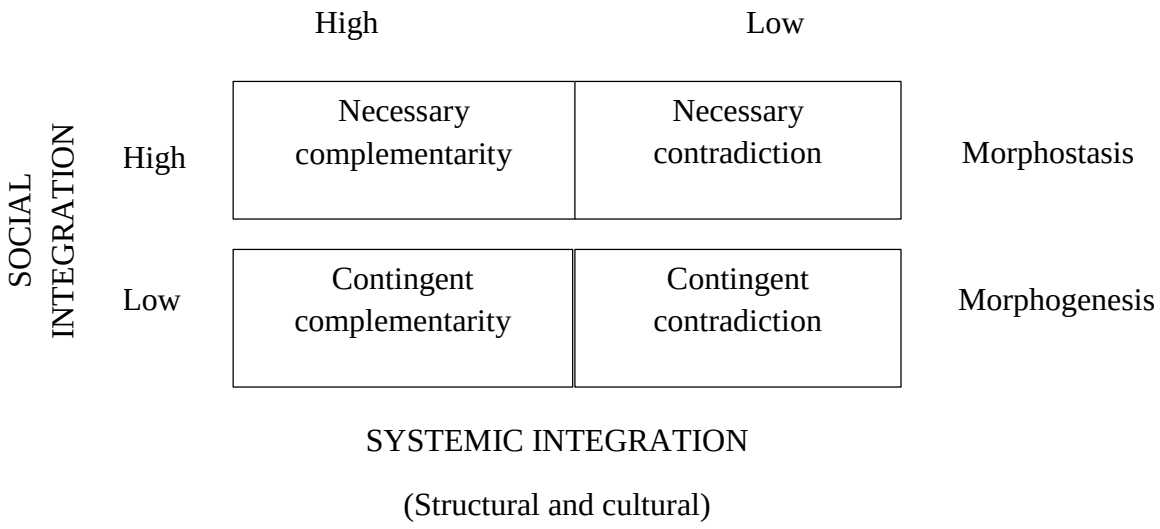

Figure 2.2: Conditions for morphogenesis and morphostasis (Archer 1995:295)

2.7.1.2 Morphogenesis of agency

Structural and cultural conditioning as explained above operate through associating bonuses and penalties with different courses of action, which means that the resulting morphostasis or morphogenesis is the product of social agency (Archer, 1995). Agents have been defined as 'collectivities, sharing the same life chances' (Archer, 1995: 257). Agency is about human beings and their actions in the world. It refers to the fact that human beings make culture, history and policy though not under conditions of their own choosing. As human beings we have powers or properties (agency) that lead to structural and/or cultural elaboration but agency is itself elaborated in the process (Archer, 2000). According to Archer (2003), social interaction in the natural, social and practical world is the sole mechanism that governs stability or change in the structural world. And through personal emergent powers of reflexivity, self-consciousness and internal conversation,

human beings forge their way in the world (Archer, 2000). Archer further points out that 'it is equally important to recognize that the same self-same sequence by which agency brings about social and cultural transformation is simultaneously responsible for the systematic transformation of the social agency itself' (Archer, 1995: 253). Double morphogenesis is involved: agency leads to structural and cultural elaboration, but is itself elaborated in the process.

In the previous section (2.7.1.1) the analysis of the 'parts' was carried out. Archer (1995:183) advocates for analytical dualism where the parts and people are analysed separately. She notes that analytical dualism is possible due to the temporality of the parts. This section concentrates mainly on the 'people' (agency) and their personal emergent powers in relation to the question: 'What is it about human beings that gives us the power to act? posed by (Elder-Vass, 2010:87).

2.7.1.2.1 Personal emergent properties (PEPs)

According to Elder Vass (2010), human action may be affected by social causes, as earlier explained (through vested interests and strategic guidance), without being fully determined by them. He notes that human beings have emergent causal powers. These powers modify relationships from within and without. Examples of the emergent properties include: self-consciousness, self-monitoring, self-commitment; personal identity and social identity.

Self-consciousness

Archer (2003:119) points out that self-consciousness; that 'continuous sense of self' is a prime emergent personal property. Being self-conscious makes 'us recognize what is expected of us' (Archer, 1995:282). The internal conversation is credited with the development of identity. Whereas Archer (2000:193) states that all human beings are aware of the 'inner voice' that results in internal dialogue or intrapersonal communication, Musholt (2013: 649) defines self-consciousness as the ability to think 'I' thoughts. Jaimovich's (1999) study shows that people are either high or low in private self-consciousness and high or low in public self-consciousness. Jaimovich (1999) asserts

that individuals high in private self-consciousness tend to have more accurate knowledge about what they know about students' learning and better articulated schemata. They also possess greater awareness of changes in emotion throughout various situations but more so awareness of the changes in the dynamic and complex teaching and learning environment in higher education.

Personal Identity

Personal identity is the 'achievement of subjects themselves in relation to their environment' and is thus a personal emergent property (Archer 2003:120). It emerges from the involvement of human beings through their emotions with the three orders of reality: nature, practice and society. Archer (2000) notes that emotions are among the constituents of our inner lives and they matter. Emotions such as joy, fear, and disappointment are 'commentaries upon our concerns' and they are affective modes of awareness of a situation (Archer, 2000:195). As human beings, emotions are essential to what we care about and to the act of caring itself (Archer, 2000:194). They are elicited by significant events in the three orders of reality: natural, practical and social orders. Archer (2000:202) states that the eliciting of emotions by events plays an important role as they are not just 'stimuli and response but entail cognition about the intentional object.'

In the natural order, emotions may or may not lead to action as they only result in the urge to act. Examples of emotions include: joy, fear and disappointment. Archer (2000) argues that where experience and expectations are congruent, the resulting emotions tend to be of low intensity and therefore lead to no change in the body or environment relationship. Conversely, in cases where experience and expectations are incongruent, the high intensity end of emotions is activated by constraints that lead to action. In the lecturers' working environment, emotions of fear, joy and disappointment tend to be elicited by students' actions and reactions in class. Depending on the congruency between the lecturers' expectations and experiences, the emotions could lead to their wanting or not wanting to learn to teach as there is the 'urgency and emergency to protect their bodies' (Archer, 2003:207) from harm such as stress or anxiety caused by students' actions.

According to Archer (2000), the task in the social world is that of explaining the various clusters of emotion that are rooted in the different orders of reality in terms of their concerns. In the natural order, emotions as stated above relate to body/environment relationship and the concern is that of physical well-being. In the practical order, which Archer (2000:184) argues is 'pivotal' to the other orders, the ultimate concern is performative achievement that of easing one's task by making it efficient and effective. Unlike embodied and discursive knowledge in the natural and social orders respectively, practical knowledge in the practical order is 'an active process of doing' since it is performative in relation to material culture and therefore pivotal (Archer, 2000:121). It is implicit, being encoded in the body as skills. It is tacit because it is reality understood through activity and not through manipulation of symbols but artifacts. Its development is extensive of the body and bodily powers. The extension eventually leads to a progressive elaboration of the skills which constitute the practical order over time (Archer, 2000:166).

People tend to be emotional in the practical order, where performative achievement is their 'ultimate concern', particularly in instances where the expected plans have not worked. According to Archer (2000), if performative achievement is a strong concern of the subject then emotions occur at the point where pre-formed plans and expectations have not worked. If at such a point, a new piece of action can be undertaken from the available resources and skills, people make the necessary modification and carry on the plans. They tend to experience the juncture joyfully.

In the practical order, self-monitoring, a personal emergent property, is the key contribution of the subject or object relation, 'People tend to monitor themselves to determine which achievements are important to them' (Archer, 2003:213). They learn about themselves in terms of their strengths and weaknesses. For lecturers, student development in terms of acquiring knowledge, skills and values is important to them and therefore they tend to monitor their performance in such areas. However, little is known about how self-monitoring takes place and why it varies from one person to another, especially for lecturers who work in similar environments.

Social Identity

Social identity is necessarily a sub-set of personal identity and therefore an emergent property but located in society (Archer, 2003). In the process of transforming the systemic features, people acquire identities as particular persons (personal identity) and as public or social beings (social identity). Archer (2000) explains that most of the time each person has to work out their own *modus vivendi* within the three orders of reality but the most important of our social concern is self-worth. Archer (2000:219) argues that it is 'our definition of what constitute self-worth that determines which normative evaluation matters enough for us to be emotional about them'. While for some lecturers a score by students of less than 4 out of 5 on a Likert scale of 1 to 5 is likely to disappoint, for others any score above 3 could do. Archer (2000: 219) notes that 'simply to be a role incumbent has no such emotional implication'. Lecturers who vest none of their self-worth in the end result of their teaching are not downcast with student evaluation or failure.

Reflexivity

Archer (2003:4) defines reflexivity as the 'regular exercise of mental ability shared by all normal people, to consider themselves in relation to their (social) contexts and vice versa'. She stresses that reflexivity is a means by which we make our way through the social world. She further points out that 'courses of action are produced through the reflexive deliberations of agents who subjectively determine their practical projects in relation to their objective circumstances' (Archer, 2003:137).

Human beings have ultimate concerns. Through reflexive deliberation they prioritize their concerns in the three orders of reality: namely physical well-being in the natural order, self-worth in the social order and performative achievement in the physical order (Archer, 2000). The process of reflexively prioritizing concerns leads to the development of personal identity. Kahn et al. (2009) points out that performative achievement is key in lecturers' professional development. However, a social identity is developed in cases where the ultimate concern is in the social order. In the case of students experiencing

learning, (Leibowitz et al., 2012) note that self-worth as a concern is important to 'being and becoming a good lecturer'. Archer (2003: 140) affirms that an ultimate concern which has been reflexively defined brings about change, 'it acts as a prism which refracts' the exercise of objective enablements and constraints.

Archer (2007:5) asserts that the reasons for promoting reflexivity to a central position within the social theory is that 'the subjective powers of reflexivity mediate the role that objective structural and cultural powers play in influencing social action' and are thus indispensable to explaining social outcomes. Archer (2007) further suggests that to understand why people act at all and what motivates them, an examination of personal concerns and inner reflexive deliberations about how to go about realizing them is necessary.

Archer (2007) identifies communicative, autonomous, meta-reflexive and fractured reflexive as four modes of reflexivity. Archer (2007:93) states that communicative reflexivity entails 'thought and talk'. That is, the internal conversation is completed and confirmed by external dialogue with others prior to a course of action being initiated. Autonomous reflexive types do not consult others; their internal conversations lead directly to action. Meta-fractured reflexives on the other hand are critically reflexive about their internal conversation and critical about effective action in society. For fractured reflexives, their internal conversation does not lead to any action due distress and disorientation.

Corporate agents

Another issue concerning socio-cultural conditioning of groups is double morphogenesis. Archer (1995:253) points out that it is 'equally important to recognize that the self-same sequence by which agency brings about social and cultural transformation is simultaneously responsible for the systematic transforming of social agency itself.' She adds that those agents from the morphogenetic perspective are agents of the socio-cultural system into which they are born and equally agents of the systemic features they

transform. In the process of transforming the structures, they also transform themselves from primary agents to corporate agents.

Corporate agents act collectively. They include: self-conscious vested interest groups, promotive interests groups, social movements and defensive associations whose objective and their common denominators are articulation and organizations. They are distinguished from primary agents as they act collectively and are capable of changing the existing structure and culture. As corporate agents they express interest for their strategic pursuit either in society or a given institutional sector. They are 'active' rather than 'passive', that is, they are 'social subjects with reasons for attempting to bring about certain outcomes rather than objects to whom things happen' (Archer, 1995:259).

Archer (1995) notes that corporate agency has two tasks; the pursuit of its self-declared goals as defined in a prior social context and its continued pursuit in an environment modified by the responses of primary agents to the context which the latter confront. Group growth (corporate agency) is likely to bring about change as the members have vested interests and are out to ensure that the projects at hand are well articulated and organized unlike an individual lecturer (primary agent) who might be overwhelmed with the many responsibilities. Archer contends that at the systemic level, actions of corporate agency may either result in change or stability depending exclusively on the interaction. But since social interaction is the sole mechanism governing stability or change what goes on during the interactions also determines the morphostasis or morphogenesis of agency itself: 'double morphogenesis' (Archer, 1995: 257). The morphogenesis of agency is about the actions of primary and corporate agents. According to Archer, socio-cultural conditioning, in the morphogenesis cycle of agency is about increasing the category of corporate agents and reducing that of primary agents.

The morphogenesis sequence begins with self-conscious Vested Interest Groups (VIP) defined in prior-socio-cultural contexts (Archer, 1995). The defensive strategies of VIP, through social differentiation and ideational diversification, stimulate the formation of Promotive Interest Groups (both material and ideational) at variance with them. This

process, which expands corporate agents and reduces primary agents, is greatly assisted by the disjunctions between morphostasis and morphogenesis in the structural and cultural domains. The introduction of an academic staff development programme that brings lecturers from different universities and/or departments and/or disciplines together is likely to increase corporate agents and reduce primary agents. This is due to the fact that cultures of particular universities and/or departments rarely change when left on their own. The converging of lecturers from different universities with different cultural backgrounds, in one university, is likely to lead to ideational diversification from what they observe and from the sharing of their experiences.

2.8 Conceptual framework

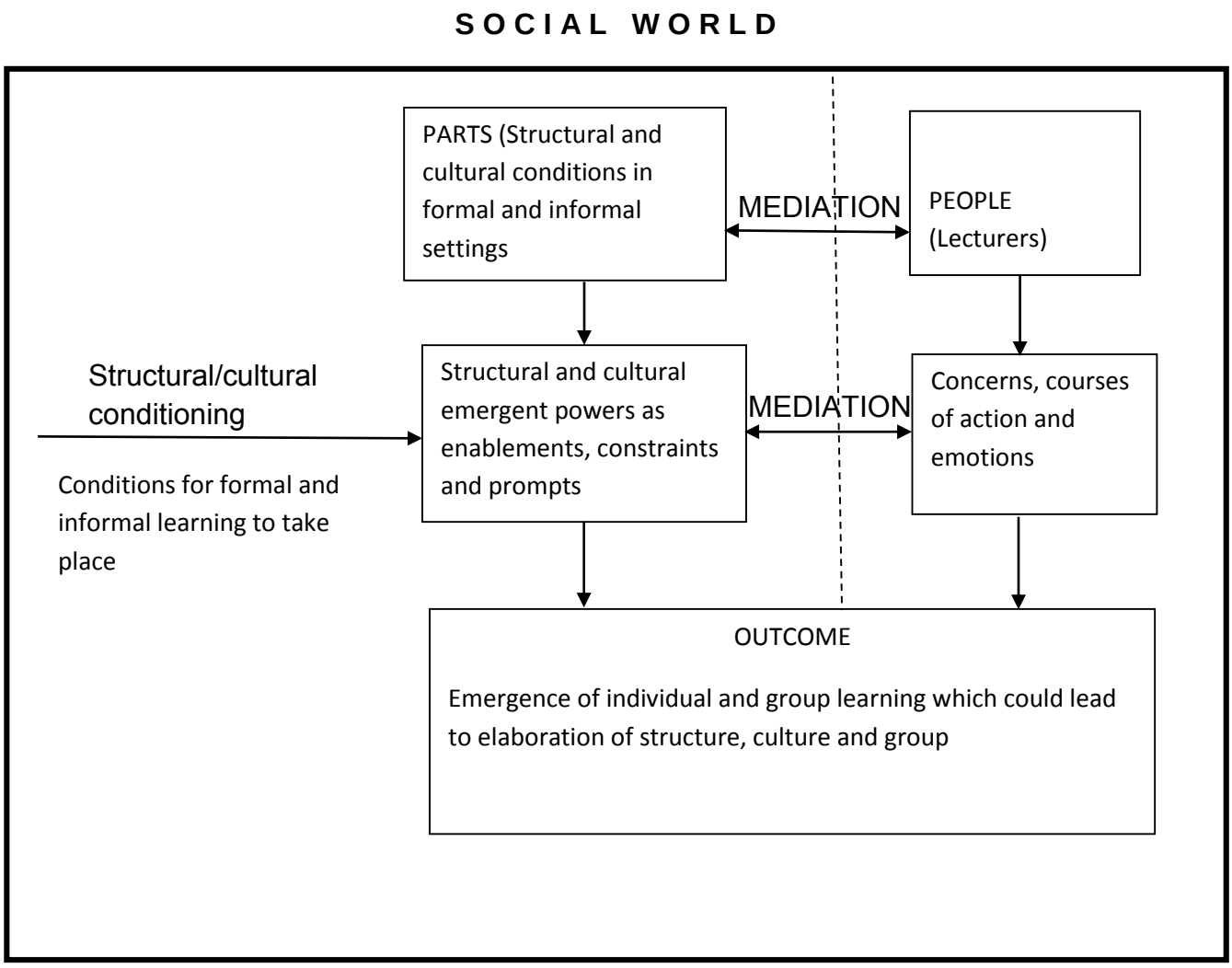

Figure 2.3: Conceptual framework

The framework shows that it is possible in the social world to separate the 'parts' (structural and cultural conditions in the settings) from 'people' (lecturers) as the two have different powers and/or properties. The parts are the structural and cultural conditions which act as enablements and constraints. However, the objective conditions ('parts') as constraints and enablements do not impinge on situations that people confront involuntarily per se. It is the structural emergent powers (SEPs) and cultural emergent powers (CEPs) of the parts that enable, and constrain the concerns held by people and their courses of action.

Structural conditioning is a process that involves both objective impingement and subjective reception. The objective, condition, without determining people's action, through vested interests and supplies them with strategic directional guidance. The conditional influences are exerted largely through socialization (of habit and associated repertoires of routine action) or through the exercise of reflexivity, entailing deliberation about the appropriate course of action in a given social context (Archer, 2010:276).

Constraints and enablements become activated in association with agents' own constellations of concerns as subjectively defined in relation to the three orders of natural reality: nature, practice and society. For anything to exert the power of a constraint or an enablement, it has to be congruent or incongruent with agents' courses of action and their concerns. Additionally, enablements require intelligent co-operation from agents as the agents' creative deliberation is necessary, while constraints need considered compliance from the agents as the agents have powers to circumvent these constraints. However, opportunity costs are real and therefore through reflexive deliberation, people tend to act by prioritizing their concerns in the three orders of reality. This leads to courses of action that result in practices that become the outcome at individual or group levels.

2.9 Summary

In this chapter the theoretical perspectives underlying lecturers' learning in both formal and informal settings has been reviewed. Learning to teach is about moving away from data transfer to students to data processing with students. Lecturers learn to become good or effective teachers. In the literature some of the factors influencing effective teaching include the relationship between the lecturer and the students, the teaching approach applied; learner-centered approach, the kind of activities that students are engaged in and the assessment methods and feedback. But most importantly, underlying effective teaching are values such as magnanimity, humility, care and affection, hospitality and thoughtfulness.

Learning to teach is significant. It enables lecturers to simplify complex issues in students' learning. Learning to teach, more so in formal settings, disrupts lecturers' taken for granted beliefs. The engagement with other participants in conversations in both formal and informal settings enables them to critically reflect on their teaching. Exposure to teaching and learning theories and other resources enables lecturers to practice scholarly teaching but for some it is the starting point for scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL).

Generally, in the academic development literature, lecturers' learning is associated with formal settings. However, most learning happens in informal settings. The two settings provide different learning opportunities but the learning mainly differs in terms of focus, objective, location and the kind of learning and participation.

Situated learning theory is relevant in explaining lecturers' learning to teach in informal settings where learning happens in authentic activity and culture. However, the theory has some limitations.

Structural, cultural and socio-cultural conditioning and the social interaction and social elaboration phases in the morphogenetic cycles have also been reviewed. Morphogenetic approach is useful in explaining how structural and cultural conditions in formal and informal settings condition lecturers' behavior and their intention to learn to teach.

2.10 Research gaps

The process of learning in formal settings, more so for new academics, has been widely covered by scholarship. A majority of studies on workplace learning focus on other professions or teacher education in institutions other than universities (Eraut, 2011). A few studies have been carried out on learning to teach in informal settings. The chapters on findings and discussions will apply social realism to explain in detail lecturers' learning in formal and informal settings. Below are some gaps in the literature.

Teaching in higher education is a complex activity and requires that lecturers continually learn. The learning is about active participation in the social world where both personal and social identities are formed. Learning to teach takes place in both formal and informal settings. While studies have been carried out on how lecturers learn in either formal or informal settings, a few studies exist on how lecturers learn to teach in both formal and informal settings.

Communities of practice (CoP) are significant in situations where people have a common need. In a CoP, the assumption is that lecturers who have taught for long are willing to pass on their history and the newcomers are ready to learn about it and extend it. However, issues of discontinuity arise in some situations where the newcomers' trajectory is dis-empowered and the more experienced lecturers are on out-bound trajectories. There are very few studies on how emergent structural and cultural properties in both formal and informal settings shape the situations that lecturers confront involuntarily and the role personal emergent powers play in the lecturers' learning. The morphogenetic approach as discussed by Archer provides an explanation of the interplay between these emergent powers.

Furthermore, Wenger (1999) discusses the process of identity formation as that of negotiation and re-negotiation, participation and non-participation. However, human beings have many concerns which they have to prioritize. Wenger does not explain the process through which people prioritize their concerns. Wenger further argues that identity arises out of the interplay of participation and reification. He does not consider the

emergent powers or properties involved in this interplay. Consequently, we need both situated and social realist theories in order to understand lecturers' learning.

In this chapter, I have reviewed the theoretical perspectives of lecturers' learning under: good or effective teaching, learning to teach defined, significance of learning to teach; learning to teach in formal and informal settings; situated learning theory and social realism. I also developed a conceptual framework from the theoretical perspectives and stated the research gaps. In the next chapter, I discuss the context of the study.

CHAPTER 3

CONTEXTUALISATION OF THE STUDY

3.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide a general overview of the context in which universities in Kenya, in particular private universities, operate. I also present case studies of two private universities, one secular and one affiliated to a religious institution. At the time of this study, Kenya's education was operating as an 8-4-4 system that is eight years of primary school education and at the end of eight years one sits for the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE) national examination followed by four years of secondary school where one sits for the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) national examination followed by four years of university education.

3.1 Higher education in Kenya

3.1.1 Historical context

The foundations of higher education in Kenya can be traced back to Makerere University in Uganda founded in 1922 during British colonial rule as a technical college for students from the three East Africa countries; Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika (the present Tanzania). In 1949, the Makerere University Act was passed leading to the establishment of the University of East Africa to offer degrees in the name of the University of London. The University of East Africa admitted its first undergraduate students in 1950 (Mwiria, 2007).

The establishment of university education in Kenya is largely associated with the birth of the Royal Technical College in 1956 which had the objective of providing courses in higher national certificate offered in Britain and to prepare students for university degrees in engineering and commercial courses not offered by Makerere (Mwiria, 2007). In 1958, it was renamed the Royal College of Nairobi and turned into a university college offering engineering degrees from the University of London. In 1961 when Kenya attained internal self-rule it became the University College of Nairobi and joined Makerere and Dar es

salaam Colleges to form the federal University of East Africa. Due to nationalist pressure mainly from Kenya and Tanzania, the University of East Africa was dissolved in 1970 with each of the countries (Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania) establishing their own national university under their respective Acts of Parliament. The University College of Nairobi was renamed the University of Nairobi; a fully-fledged university with a number of faculties and departments (Mwiria, 2007).

Since then, the government of Kenya has established other public universities in different parts of the country. Moi University was established in 1984 in Eldoret, Kenyatta University in 1985 in Nairobi City, Egerton in 1987 in Nakuru and Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology in 1994 in Thika (Wesonga et al., 2007). Due to the increase in demand for university education, more public universities have been established in different parts of the country, totaling 23 public chartered universities and ten constituent colleges as of June 2016 (CUE, 2016).

3.1.2 University education in Kenya

The widespread demand for university education in Kenya has been triggered by the massive expansion of primary and secondary education over the last three decades (Mwiria, et al., 2007). The expansion was propelled by free primary education that was implemented in 2003. Universal primary education is a global goal and Kenya implemented it at independence in 1963 and again in 2003. After the implementation of free primary education in January 2003, the number of primary school pupils all over Kenya increased by 18%; from 6,063,000 pupils in 2002 to 7,160,000 pupils in 2003 (Bold, Sanderfur, Mwabu & Kimenyi, 2010).

Demographic pressure is another factor that has led to an increase in demand for university education. There has been an upward trend in population growth. Kenya's population as of 1st January 2015 was 45,456,943, compared to a population of 8,768,699 in 1963. The percentage of the population under 15 years in 2015 was 42.2% and the percentage of the population between 15 and 64 years, was 55.1% and the percentage of the population above 65 was 2.7% (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2016). This

implies that a large proportion of the population are active people who are likely to be pursuing higher education.

Other factors include the increasing sophistication of the economy which demands a skilled workforce. The determination by some religious organizations to open tertiary institutions for their followers have also been instrumental in the emergence of church sponsored universities (Wesonga et al., 2007). Out of the 17 chartered private universities 12 (71%) are affiliated to a religious institution while five are secular (CUE, 2016).

High demand for university education compelled the government of Kenya to increase the number of public universities from one in 1970 to 23 public universities and 10 constituent colleges by June 2016. But the demand for university education continues to outstrip the capacity of these institutions. For instance, for the 2015 Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) candidates, the number of students admitted to public universities rose by 6000. Of the 483,630 students who sat for the Kenya certificate of secondary education (KCSE) only 165,766 (34%) candidates scored the minimum university entry grade of C+. Public universities admitted 74,000 or 45% of the total candidates (KUCCPs, 2016).

Out of the 45% admitted only 88% were admitted into programmes of their choice, which implies that only 40% were likely to take up their admission in the public universities. The remaining 55% not admitted in public universities were likely to end up in private universities or as self-sponsored students in public universities. Most of the 12% who were not admitted to a programme of their choice, and could afford to pay tuition, were also likely to end up in private universities. Private universities in Kenya, therefore, have a share of about 60% of the students who qualify for university education. The government has encouraged the establishment of private universities as educating a child locally tends to be cheaper than educating a child abroad. Furthermore, at the time of this study, the President of Kenya and Vice-chancellors of private universities had signed a memorandum of understanding for the government to sponsor ten thousand students who qualified to join public universities in 2016 to join private universities (Aduda, 2016).

Universities in Kenya are classified into two major groups; public universities and private universities. A public university is 'a university established and maintained out of the public funds while private universities are institutions of higher education that run on students' tuition fee with no funding from the government' (Universities Act, 2012: 477). Table 3.1 shows the type and number of public and private universities in Kenya based on their accreditation status as at June 2016.

Table 3.1: Types and number of public and private universities in Kenya

	Public universities	*Private Universities*	*Total*
Chartered	23	17	**40**
Constituent colleges	10	5	**15**
Letter of Interim of Authority		14	**14**
Registered		1	**1**
Total	**33**	**37**	**70**

3.1.3 The legal framework

University education in Kenya falls under the Ministry of Education Science and Technology. It is currently guided by the Universities Act of 2012 and regulated by the Commission of University Education (CUE) formerly known as Commission for Higher Education (CHE). In addition, Kenya University and Colleges Central Placement Services (KUCCPS) has the mandate to place students who attain a minimum grade of C+ in various public universities and Higher Education Loans Board (HELB) provides funds for tuition fees to students in both private and public universities. Below is a brief account of the three bodies.

3.1.3.1 Commission of University Education

The Commission of University Education (CUE) was established by an Act of Parliament, the Universities Act, No 42 of 2012, as the successor to the Commission of Higher Education (CHE) which had been established under Universities Act Cap 210B of 1985. Before the Universities Act of 2012, public universities were established by specific Acts of Parliament that were not in harmony with the University Act Cap (210B) that created the CHE and provided for the establishment of private universities. The Universities Act of 2012 was to address the need to regulate, coordinate and assure quality in university education, both public and private universities, as a result of growth and expansion of the university subsector in Kenya. The Commission of University Education was established as a body corporate to make better provision for the advancement of quality university education in Kenya (CUE, 2016).

The mandate of the CUE is to promote the objectives of university education, by regulating and accrediting universities and programmes, among other functions. The Commission for University Act No. 42 of 2012 stipulates the specific function of the Commission as:

1. Regulate university education in Kenya
2. Accredit universities in Kenya;
3. Develop policy for criteria and requirements for admission to universities;
4. Promote, set standards and assure relevance in the quality of university education;
5. Promote quality research and innovation;
6. Undertake or cause to be undertaken, regular inspections, monitoring and evaluation of universities to ensure compliance with set standards and guidelines;
7. Monitor and evaluate the state of university education systems in relation to the national development goals (CUE, 2016).

3.1.3.2 The Kenya Universities and Colleges Central Placement Services

The Kenya Universities and Colleges Central Placement Service (KUCCPS) is a corporate body that was established under the Universities Act 2012 to succeed the Joint Admissions Board (JAB) established in the 1980s as a placement service. The Service is governed by the Placement Board. The Placement Board seeks to promote equity and access to university and college education, mainly public institutions by developing criteria for affirmative action, for the marginalized, minorities and persons with disabilities. The placement board also seeks to establish criteria to enable students to access courses they applied for taking into account the students' qualifications and listed priorities (KUCCPS, 2016).

3.1.3.3 Higher Education Loans Board

The Higher Education Loans Board (HELB) is a State Corporation under the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. It was established by an Act of Parliament (Cap 213A) in 1995. The mandate of the Board is to disburse affordable loans, bursaries and scholarships to needy students pursuing higher education in recognized higher education institutions (Mwiria & Ngethe, 2007). Key among the responsibilities of the Board is sourcing funds, establishing, managing and awarding loans, bursaries and scholarships. The Board has been instrumental in enabling needy students in both private and public universities access university education.

3.1.4 Challenges and opportunities

University education in Kenya in recent years has witnessed a liberal or free political space. In the 80s and 90s, the President of the Republic of Kenya was the Chancellor of all public universities. In 2003, the new government liberalized university governance by allowing each university to appoint its Chancellor. Currently, the position of Vice-Chancellors in public universities is filled through a competitive appointment process (Mwiria, 2007). The introduction of the Universities Act 2012 greatly improved governance

in higher education. One of the aims of the Universities Act 2012 was to have CUE regulate both private and public universities (CUE, 2016).

In addition, there is regional collaboration and cross-border education amongst the East African Countries (EAQAN, 2016). This has increased the number of students attending university education in Kenya. It has been noted that universities in Kenya have a large proportion of foreign students. This trend is more common in some of the private universities. Some Kenyan universities have also opened campuses in neighbouring countries.

The increase in the number of universities and students and cross-border higher education have resulted in a number of changes. The student body is large and more heterogeneous. In 2000 the student population was 59,200 and by 2012, it had risen to 271,143 (Odhiambo, 2014). The majority of the students pay their tuition fees. This poses challenges to teaching as classes are full of students demanding quality education that they are paying for (Gudo, Oanda & Olel., 2011).

3.2 Private higher education

Although there has been a lot of debate on what constitute private and public universities, private higher education is considered to be the component of higher education driven primarily by private entrepreneurial effort rather than the state (Marginson, 2007; Obasi, 2008; Matimbo, 2016). Obasi (2008) asserts that a private entity is commonly defined by financial streams and governance practices. As earlier stated Kenyan private universities are institutions of higher education that run on students' tuition fee with no direct funding from the government (Universities Act, 2012).

3.2.1 Types of private higher institutions

Studies suggest that there are two broad approaches for classifying the various types of private higher education institutions: a typological approach and a non-typological approach. The typological approach adopts a two-level categorisation of private higher

education institutions, while the non-typological approach adopts a one-level categorisation (Obasi, 2008:16). He states that private higher education can be classified in five typological ways, based on:

1) Value orientation of the private higher education institution as: religion and secular on one hand and elite and non-elite on the other. However Obasi (2008) points out that in reality the two are not mutually exclusive as an institution can be religious and elite or non-elite.

2) Profit and not- for-profit. Obasi (2008) also notes that in practice this may not hold as whilst private institutions of higher education may claim to be not-for-profit in theory, in practice they are usually profit making institutions.

3) Level of education provided: university type and non- university type.

4) Source of origin, that is, national and transnational. National refers to institutions owned located and operated locally. Transnational category consists of private institutions which provide cross-border education through branches and institutions or through other modalities.

5) State support: state supported financially (research grants) and non-state support.

The non- typological approach adopts one-level and classifies private higher education institutions as:

1) Transnational: based on source of origin.

2) Agency: based on local companies or franchise institution involved.

3) Technical and vocational education training institutes (TVET) based on a specific function provided.

4) Corporate classroom based on in-service orientation.

From the above classification, it can be seen that the non-typological approach reflects almost all types under the typological approach (Obasi, 2008). Whereas some private universities in Kenya are indigenous, some are affiliated to religious organizations or

universities in other countries while others have branches in some of the East African countries (CUE, 2016). Thus, most of the private higher education institutions in Kenya are universities that are affiliated to religious, non-state supported, non-elite and either national or transnational based. Irrespective of the classification, all private universities in Kenya mainly rely on tuition fees as their main source of finance (Oketch, 2003).

3.2.2 Growth of private institutions of higher education

The private higher education sector is one of the most dynamic and fastest growing sectors, despite the dominance and preference for public universities in most African countries (Altbach, 1999). According to Matimbo (2016), Kenya has the highest number of private universities in East Africa. As depicted in table 3.1, there are slightly more private universities than public universities in Kenya.

The first two private institutions of higher education existed in Kenya before independence (1963). In 1970, the establishment of United States International University (USIU) signaled the arrival of the first private university of a secular orientation. Since then, many other private universities have been established. They can be divided into those affiliated to a religious institution or organization and the secular. They can also be classified as chartered, that is those accredited by the Commission of University Education (CUE, 2016) and those operating on the Letter of Interim Authority or as registered. Accreditation refers to 'the procedure by which the Commission recognizes an institution as a university' (Universities Act, 2012:1856). By June 2016, there were 17 chartered private universities and five constituent colleges and 14 private institutions with a letter of interim authority and one registered. Most of the private universities were established between 1989 and 2012. They received their charters after at least five years of operating on the Interim Letter of Authority (CUE, 2016).

Four theories have been put forward to explain how private institutions of higher education emerge and grow. According to Obasi (2008), the growth of private universities can be explained by: 1) Public failure theory- it explains how the failure of public universities creates a gap that is being filled by the private universities. 2) The demand-absorption

theory- it is related to public failure theory but it specifically explains a situation in which public supply of higher education falls short of new demand that is being met by private universities. 3) Differentiated function theory- it explains the growth of higher education on the basis of certain alternatives and specific types of education services provided by private universities. 4) Demand for better education theory- it accounts for the growth of private universities on the basis of demand for better quality education.

The four theories mentioned above can be used to explain the growth of private universities in Kenya. According to Mutula (2002), private universities in Kenya have emerged as a viable option for acquiring higher education. Private universities mainly offer market driven courses and provide a conducive environment for academic excellence (Mutula, 2002).

3.2.3 Cases

In this section, I outline the history, mission, vision, core values, governance and academic staff development policy and practices of two private universities to get deeper insights on the growth and operations of private universities in Kenya. One university is secular and the other affiliated to a religious institution,

3.2.3.1 Strathmore University

History

Strathmore University, founded in 1961, has a rich history and heritage, being the first multi-racial and multi- religious institutions in pre-colonial Kenya. During the colonial period, people from different races were not allowed to interact. Strathmore University began as Strathmore College; an Advanced-level Sixth Form College (men only) offering Science and Arts subjects. It was situated in the Lavington area of Nairobi at Strathcona Road, hence the choice of the name Strathmore. Strathmore was founded under the inspiration of St Josemaria Escriva, founder of Opus Dei, a personal prelature within the hierarchy of the Catholic Church.

A few years after Kenya gained its independence, the board of trustees decided to grow the number of African accountants by offering accountancy courses for the Association

of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA) qualification. The first ACCA class comprised 25 students.

In 1989, the government of Kenya donated five acres of land in the current Madaraka area to Strathmore University. The European Union and the Italian Government funded the initial buildings and equipment of the University. In 1993, Strathmore College merged with Kianda College (a secretarial institution founded in 1961 for women) and moved its location from Lavington to the Madaraka area, 5 kilometers from the Central Business District of Nairobi.

In 2002, the Commission of Higher Education (CHE) awarded Strathmore College a Letter of Interim Authority to operate as Strathmore University. In 2008, the Government of Kenya awarded Strathmore a Charter giving it full legal recognition to operate as a university.

Teaching

Strathmore University remains committed to its mission: 'to provide all–round quality education in an atmosphere of freedom and responsibility, excellence in teaching, research and scholarship, ethical and social development and services to society' (Strathmore University, 2016). In line with its mission, Strathmore University embraces a teaching philosophy that is focused on providing a holistic education that caters for all facets of the human person.

Currently (2016), Strathmore University offers eleven undergraduate programmes up from two (BBIT and BCOM) in 2002. They include: Bachelor of Business in: Information Technology (BBIT), Actuarial Science, Finance, and Financial Economics. Bachelor of Science in: Informatics, Telecommunication, Leadership and Management, Hospitality Management, and Tourism Management; Bachelor of Commerce (BCOM) and Bachelor of Laws. The University also offers eight Master's programmes and Doctoral degrees. The student population in the undergraduate, graduate and doctoral programmes had grown from 3,000 students in 2013 to 5,000 by the end of 2015 (Strathmore University, 2016).

All the University's programmes are complemented with a strong offering of ethics, philosophy and other general humanities (languages; Japanese, Chinese and German, Communication Skills, Critical Thinking, World Civilization and Great Books) to further augment the understanding of the human person, work, family, society, institutions, ethics and governance. The University continues to avail professional qualifications in areas sought after by industry such as accounting, finance and marketing (Strathmore University, 2016).

Research

Strathmore University is engaged in research projects spanning across health and health care management, mobile application and cyber security, renewable energy and energy efficiency, public policy, governance and integrity, entrepreneurship, sustainable tourism, mathematical modeling and applied statistics, extractive industries and intellectual property. These research programmes are conducted by students at the undergraduate, Master's and Doctoral levels. Additionally, lecturers as individuals or as a group source funds internally and externally (nationally and internationally) to fund their research projects (Strathmore University, 2016).

Service to society

Strathmore University serves society through research, education and institutional citizenship. As part of the undergraduate curriculum, Strathmore students dedicate a minimum of 200 hours to serving the community on a voluntary basis through the community based attachment programme. Additionally, the University has established an office that deals with community outreach programmes. It is run by students and staff with a focus on addressing challenges faced by the less privileged members of the society (Strathmore University, 2016).

Governance and management

The University is governed by a Board of Trustees and the University Council. As at June 2016, the Board of Trustees comprised six members. The University Council is made up of ten members; the Chairman, Vice-Chairman, Secretary, five members and two Ex-Officio.

The management board is made up of six members: the Vice-Chancellor (Chairman), two Deputy-Vice-Chancellors and three Directors in charge of Administration, Finance and Communications and University Relations. At another level of management, the Deans' Committee is made up of Deans from the eight schools with the Deputy Vice-Chancellor, Academic Affairs as the Chair.

Academic staff development policy

The overall aim of academic staff development is to assist the development of each individual and thereby promote improved performance in support of the University's goals and priorities. The university's academic staff development policy states that Strathmore University is committed to a working environment where professional improvement is seen as a continuous process which enables all members of staff to develop their professional skills and effectiveness in support of the goals and priorities of the university. The university recognizes the value of staff development in achieving academic excellence, enhancing efficient and effective operation of the university, and facilitating the work, career and personal development of each individual member of staff (Strathmore University, 2005).

Staff development includes everything that is done to maintain and extend the knowledge and skills of staff so that they can fully contribute towards the achievement of University goals. Academic staff development supports the personal and professional improvement of academic staff, as well as the organizational development needs of the University. Of particular importance for academic staff are the continuous development of teaching and research skills, and maintaining currency in the disciplines on which the University's

programmes are based. Some specific aims of the academic staff development policy include:

- Allow academic staff to take responsibility for their continuing professional development;
- Link academic staff development and training with the mission, aims and strategic plans of the University;
- Foster excellence in the University's teaching and learning, research and community service;
- Provide activities which further the professional and career development needs of staff identified through annual performance planning and appraisal (Strathmore University, 2005:12)

The policy also states the individual's responsibility as:

> The ultimate responsibility for the development of work-related skills and knowledge rests with each member of staff. The effectiveness of any staff development activity depends on the active and purposeful participation of the individuals involved. All academic staff are expected to support developmental activities so that the benefits they bring to both the university and individual staff members are maximized (Strathmore University, 2005:13).

The policy describes the responsibility of the university as: 'The university and specifically the Deans, Heads of Academic Units and other supervisors at all levels, are responsible for facilitating academic staff development in their areas of responsibility' (Strathmore University, 2005:13)

In summary, Strathmore University may be described as a private university with no state support as most of its funds are made up of tuition fees (Strathmore University, 2016). However as (Obasi, 2008) argues, a private university might be dependent on tuition fees but supported by government in other ways. In the case of Strathmore as earlier stated, the government donated land to the University and other development partners like the European Union provided grants. Although Strathmore University was founded under the

inspiration of St Josemaria Escriva, founder of Opus Dei, a personal prelature within the hierarchy of the Catholic Church, Strathmore University is not a Catholic University. It can also be considered as a national university since most of its students are Kenya nationals and it grew out of Strathmore College, an institution that began in Kenya.

3.2.3.2 United States International University (USIU)

History

USIU was founded in 1969 as the first and only secular university registered under the Companies Act (Cap 486). It began by offering business degrees and any other degree not being offered by public universities in 1970. It has dual accreditation with the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC) in USA and the Commission of Higher Education (CHE) now (CUE) in Kenya. In 1977, the University began to offer accredited full degree programmes in International Relations, Business Administration and Psychology. In 1991, USIU moved to its present location in Kasarani. In 2008, USIU was accredited as an independent university by the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC). However, in 2014, the university rebranded itself by reverting from USIU to its former USIU-Africa (USIU, 2016).

The student population currently totals over 6,000 and over 69 nationalities are represented among the diverse student population undertaking 24 undergraduate, graduate and doctoral programmes. The tuition fees minus other charges for most undergraduate programmes amount to about $ 2,800 per year (USIU, 2016).

The university's vision is 'to be á premier institution of academic excellence with a global perspective.' And its mission is: 'To promote the discovery and application of knowledge, the acquisition of skills and development of intellect and character in a manner which prepares students to contribute effectively and ethically as citizens of a changing and increasingly technological world' (USIU, 2016).

USIU expects its students to be high order thinkers, literate, have a global understanding and a multi-cultural perspective, prepared for careers, ethical leaders and participate in

community service and development (USIU, 2016). To achieve these outcomes USIU strives to:

1. Develop a learning culture that continues throughout a person's life-time (life-long learning).
2. Ensure the pursuit of excellence by upholding professional and ethical standards and being accountable (Integrity).
3. Introduce new methods and strategies that ensure quality, efficiency, effectiveness and productivity (Innovativeness).
4. Provide leadership in responding to issues of national and global concern through collaborative efforts (Social responsibility).
5. Uphold the spirit of free and critical thought and enquiry through open exchange of ideas and knowledge (Academic freedom) (USIU, 2016).

Management and Governance

USIU Board of Trustees is made up of four members. It is also governed by the University Council, which comprises 12 members. The Management Board provides the Vice-Chancellor with decision-making support. It is made up of nine members. Other governing bodies include the Student Affairs Council, Faculty Council and Staff Council (USIU, 2016).

Faculty Development

The university expects every faculty to undertake regular training to improve his or her knowledge in the content area, in their discipline, teaching methodology and use of technology in teaching.

All new faculty both full time and adjunct shall go through three workshops:

i. Formulation and alignment of learning outcomes
ii. Assessment of student learning beyond the grade
iii. Effective classroom management procedures. (USIU, 2016)

They are also expected to be inducted into the student-centered approach and outcome based teaching and assessment. At the end of each academic year, faculty members meet for two days to share successes and challenges in their assessment engagements. This is also a period within which faculty development needs identified in the year are addressed through workshops and other training.

In summary, USIU can be described as a not-for profit (stated on the website), secular, transnational private university with no state support. Compared to Strathmore University, it is a multi-cultural university with foreign students forming a substantial percentage of the student population. Whereas the percentage of foreign students at Strathmore University as of October 2015 was a paltry 3.5% (Strathmore University, 2016), USIU has a student population of over 6512 students representing 69 nationalities. More than 30% of the student population is foreign students (USIU, 2016). USIU may be considered non-elite by the public as it is a more liberalized university compared to most private universities in Kenya in terms of students' enrolment but expensive.

The two universities are considered expensive by the public. The minimum tuition fees for a 4-year undergraduate programme is slightly over 10,000 USD and may be as high as 15,000 USD (Strathmore University, 2016; USIU, 2016).

3.3 Rationale for choosing private universities

A sample of four private universities was used in this study. As earlier indicated, there are more private than public universities in Kenya. More than 50% of the students who meet the minimum university requirements at the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Examination (KCSE) are likely to be enrolled in private universities or as self-sponsored students in public universities. Private universities also tend to a broader constituency as they maintain a high percentage of foreign students (Mwiria et al., 2007).

Whilst students admitted in public universities are admitted based on their exemplary performance and to a great extent, as indicated above, they are admitted to a programme of their choice, private universities have to aggressively compete for students. Private

universities compete for students based on the kind of programmes they offer, quality and the tuition fee charged (Oketch, 2003). Fees charged by some private universities, as indicated earlier, is high, thus students expect 'value for money'. Management in such universities is therefore likely to have in place academic staff development programmes and/or set up a department dedicated to improving the quality of learning and teaching.

I chose private universities for this study because the objective was to analyze lecturers' learning in both formal and informal settings. The chances of getting lecturers who had learned how to teach in the formal settings was higher, as five out of the eight universities that participated in the Post-graduate Certificate in Academic Programme (PCAP) sponsored by British Council, were private. Below is a brief overview of the programme.

3.3.1 Overview of Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PCAP) in Kenya

In 2007 and 2010, the British Council funded a Post Graduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PCAP) programme. It was facilitated by York St John University academic staff in the United Kingdom. The programme was offered to a number of lecturers from various public and private universities in Kenya. The British Council-funded project was in response to the pressing need for Kenya (and other countries in Africa) to:

1. Prepare a skilled workforce for the challenges of a global market.
2. Confront the challenges, such as large classes, of a rapid growth in student numbers in higher education
3. Develop academics' approaches to teaching and learning.
4. Produce more effective learning approaches.
5. Enhance student experience (Calvert, 2009).

The expansion of higher education in Kenya made such a project all the more significant. There was recognition that staff very often have little or no training to teach and that traditional didactic approaches predominate, that is, the transmission mode and too much time and effort spent on plenary lectures with extensive note-taking.

In order to address these needs, the first task was to offer opportunities for selected members of staff to examine existing practice and to find their own solutions with the help of outside ideas and practices. It was hoped that in the medium term, institutions will develop their own programmes and become largely self-sufficient.

The intervention

The first project involved four universities: two public and two private, namely: Kabarak University, Egerton University, Moi University and United States International University (USIU).

The twenty participants and ten educators were exposed to a range of theories and approaches to equip them to face the challenges of teaching in higher education in a developing country. The intention was that this would form the basis for sustainable staff development by supporting "champions" who can develop practice within their own institutions (Calvert, 2009).

The first twenty participants participated in the PCAP course in 2007-2008, which entitled successful participants to membership of the Higher Education Academy in the UK. The programme was a one-year programme where participants mainly worked on work-based assignments. The face-to-face contact was provided by three weeks of intensive work spread over a year.

The second programme in 2009-2010 involved five universities: Strathmore University, African Nazarene University, Daystar University, Catholic University of Eastern Africa and Kenyatta University. It had a total of thirty-five participants, seven from each university. From the second cohort of 35 participants 28 completed the programme and graduated in 2010 with a postgraduate certificate in academic practice and are fellows of Higher Education Academy in UK. That was the easy part. Making the changes sustainable and institutionalized is a major challenge at a time of rapidly expanding numbers, pressure on resources and high workloads (Calvert, 2009). This study sought to establish implications for a framework on how to support lecturers to learn to teach in both formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya.

The facilitation of PCAP to lecturers from the eight universities in Kenya enabled the six private universities to either improve on their existing academic staff programmes or introduce similar programmes to the rest of the academic staff.

In this Chapter, I have examined the context in which private universities operate in. Chapter 4, is on the research design and research methodology.

CHAPTER 4

THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.0 Introduction

In Chapter 2, I presented the theoretical perspective and framework that I used to answer the research questions in Chapter 1. In this chapter, I present the epistemology, research approach, data collection and analytical techniques employed to answer the main research question: How do lecturers, based on their own accounts, learn to teach in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya? And the specific questions:

1. What is the outcome of lecturers' learning to teach in formal settings and informal settings in private universities in Kenya?
2. How do lecturers learn to teach in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya?
3. What structural, cultural and personal emergent powers prompt, enable and constrain lecturers' learning in private universities in Kenya?
4. How does lecturers' agency shape their learning in both formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya?
5. What possible framework can offer learning opportunities to lecturers' learning to teach in private universities in Kenya?

4.1 Research design

4.1.1 Choice of research strategy

An exploratory study was deemed the most appropriate in resolving the research problem, that is, how lecturers learn to teach in formal and in informal settings in private universities in Kenya. Exploratory research enables a researcher to ask questions to discover what is happening and gain insights about the topic of interest (Saunders et.al., 2012). In the study, I asked semi-structured questions to find out how lecturers learn. An exploratory study was also appropriate since learning opportunities in formal and in informal settings are diverse. The learning opportunities in both settings are available to

all lecturers but how and what each lecturer learns tends to be unique as people tend to have different approaches to learning (Jordan, 2008).

Additionally, the study was explanatory as some of the above mentioned questions required explanations about the causation of structure, culture and agency. Sayer (2010:105) explains causation, not as the number of times that something happens but as 'explanation that depends on identifying causal mechanisms and how they work, and discovering if they have been activated under what conditions.' The realist view of causality concerns not the relationship between discrete events but causal powers of liabilities of objects or relations or more generally their ways of acting or mechanisms (Sayer, 2010). Structures are invariant under certain conditions and often difficult to displace. They get transformed gradually from within. Causal powers are inherent not simply in single objects or individuals but in the social relations and structures which they form. In this study, causal mechanisms that enabled or constrained and those that were likely to prompt and challenge lecturers to learn were identified and explained.

The research was qualitative in nature. According to Saunders et al. (2012:162), qualitative research is 'an investigative process where the researcher gradually makes sense of a social phenomenon by contrasting, comparing, replicating, cataloguing and classifying objects.' This study was characterized by an interpretive approach to allow for rich analysis and in-depth description of the accounts of lecturers' learning to teach (Creswell, 2007). To understand better how lecturers learn to teach in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya, an interpretive approach was appropriate, since I was capturing the lecturers' experiences, at the level of the empirical, to work towards underlying explanations, thus the level of the real.

Qualitative research was appropriate as learning to teach is contextual. The underlying argument in this study was that structural and cultural factors in formal and in informal settings exist and have a role to play in lecturers' learning. Although the settings in private universities in Kenya are external to lecturers, they are likely to be different from those of public universities or other private universities outside Kenya in terms of material resources and student composition (Mwiria et al., 2007). The use of qualitative research

was appropriate to understand the lecturers' perceptions of the context in which they learn to teach.

Learning to teach is a process by which events and actions take place. My interest in this study was to examine the events and actions that lead to the outcome of lecturers' learning. Qualitative rather than quantitative research was found suitable in explaining the learning process. Quantitative research is about variables but processes tend to be amorphous. Whilst quantitative researchers tend to be interested in the *variation in variables* and how and to what extent the variation in one variable brings about a variation in the other variable, qualitative researchers tend to consider the *process* that connects two or more variables (Maxwell, 2013).

The use of qualitative research provided flexibility in carrying out the study as there were no predetermined variables. Quantitative research lacks the flexibility as one has to test the hypotheses that are set before the start of data collection (Maxwell, 2013). Qualitative research was appropriate as the objective conditions - the structures that enable and constrain lecturers' learning are constituted by internal relations which need to be understood without being rigid, that is, through the use of specific hypotheses (Sayer, 2010). Qualitative researchers strive to shed light on questions that simply cannot be answered by surface observation or by statistical analysis alone (Cousin, 2009).

4.1.2 Research philosophy

According to Saunders et al. (2012:127), a research philosophy relates 'to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge. It is the assumption about the way in which the world is viewed, that is, either objectively or subjectively.' Therefore it is relative and it depends on the pose one takes. This study adopted a realist philosophy, where the role of objects, that is formal and informal settings in the lecturers' learning, were viewed as being independent of the human mind. According to Maxwell (2013:136), realism is 'the belief that there is a real world that exists independently of our perception and theories.' Thus objects have intrinsic properties which are capable of generating properties and mechanisms that generate events and research is about discovering

these. In this study, social realism was found appropriate in explaining the generative mechanisms in formal and in informal settings that bring about change when lecturers learn to teach.

Central to a realist approach to research is that it seeks to identify and explain the causal forces that operate at the deeper ontological levels of reality. It seeks to discover something about reality which is not yet known, in essence 'accepting that things do not happen by chance or without reason' (Sayer, 2010:5). Critical realism views the mechanisms, events and experience as constituting three overlapping domains of reality: real, actual and empirical respectively. The real refers to 'whatever exists, the structures and powers of objects, be it natural or social; the actual refers to what happens if and when those powers are activated or remain dormant and the empirical is defined as the domain of experiences' (Sayer, 2000:12). Bhaskar (1998) argues that the best explanations are not necessarily at the level of the most basic empirical elements and mechanisms but in the domain of the real. The domain of the real is the most important as it encompasses the actual and the empirical domains.

According to Madill (2008), realism is appropriate in situations that seek to explain outcomes, identify patterns and underlying phenomena. Teaching as a social function is likely to change depending on the underlying factors such as learning or not learning to teach in formal and in informal settings. But the act or nature of teaching is enduring as it is about a relationship between the lecturer and the student and the sharing and the creation of knowledge. This study endeavoured to analyze the underlying factors: the structural and cultural factors that enable and constrain lecturers' learning and the personal emergent powers that make learning to teach possible.

4.1.3 Research approaches

Although most qualitative studies apply inductive reasoning, for it to work it requires the knowledge of past events and it is also probabilistic. Sayer (2010) argues that induction depends on past events which may not be possible in situations where the world changes as past arrangement may no longer hold. In understanding the existence of objective

structures and their make-up and in explaining what happens rather than what will happen, Sayer (2010) recommends abduction.

Unlike deduction and induction which are inferences of particular instances from general to particular and of general instances from particular respectively, abduction is an inference from 'observed facts' (Richardson & Kramer, 2006:500). Abduction was appropriate for this study as the philosophy underlying this study is realist. According to Bertilsson (2004), critical realists have adopted abduction as the link between (abstract) structure and (concrete) action. The patterns and structures are inferred as it is not easy to see them in concrete events and occurrences. Critical realists tend to 'refer to inferences from a description of some phenomenon to a description of something that produces it or is a condition for it' (Houston, 2010:82).

Additionally in cases where there is causality then retroduction and not induction should be applied. Sayer (2010: 106) suggests retroduction, that is 'working backwards' or 'bottom up' in situations where there are causal effects. While retroduction and abduction are used interchangeably by many authors including Pierce (1955), retroduction is more of a process, while abduction is the 'thinking' behind that process. Prowse (2010) points out that retroduction involves abstracting from the empirical domain to the actual and real domains through abduction. Sayer (2010:107) further states that 'merely knowing that an event C has generally been followed by E is not enough. There is a need to understand the continuous process by which C produced E. The process of postulating and identifying the mechanisms that are capable of producing them is retroduction'.

In this study, to understand how lecturers' learn, abductive reasoning and retroduction were applied. They were found appropriate as there was a need to explain learning to teach in both formal and informal settings and the contribution lecturers make towards their learning. The first step was to start from the bottom of the morphogenetic cycle and analyze the outcome of learning to teach in both formal and informal settings. The next step was to determine the mechanisms that led to the outcome; that is, the interplay between structural and cultural emergent properties that enable and constrain lecturers' learning and the lecturers' personal emergent properties that contribute to shaping their learning.

Archer's (1995) morphogenetic approach was also applied as both a conceptual and methodological framework. The approach enabled me to move back and forth; apply abduction, instead of moving from theory to data or data to theory as in deductive and inductive process respectively (Saunders et al., 2010). The approach also enabled me to start from the bottom up; apply retroduction. According to Brereton (2009:8), the 'conditions in the morphogenetic cycles at time one (T^1) can be retroductively inferred from their later effects –create possibilities for continuity and change at present time $T^{2'}$.

4.2 Data collection methods

The data collection methods used in this study were interviews and observations. The interviews were semi- structured in that the questions asked were not predetermined. Most of the questions that I asked the respondents (see sample questions in Appendix 1) emerged from the interview notes that I drafted from their responses to the question of how they had grown as lecturers. The interviews lasted, on average, an hour. In all the interviews, I started off mainly by telling respondents the background to the problem as stated in Appendix 2.

4.2.1 Interviews

Most data was collected from the semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews are structured around a set of themes which serve as a guide to facilitate interview talk (Cousin, 2009).

The interviews were appropriate as they allowed the lecturers to convey opinions, experiences, their own understanding of what they experienced and valued accounts of the roles they played in their learning. The interviews provided an opportunity to 'probe' the interviewees' responses for more explanation, build on, and get clarification on some issues that were unclear. From the probing, the meanings added depth and significance to the data collected. During the interviews some respondents led the discussion in areas that I had not anticipated, providing more in depth data in response to the research questions and understanding of how lecturers learn to teach. In spite of the fact that some of respondents were likely to report what they wanted me to hear during the interview,

more so during the probing that followed, the semi-structured nature of the interviews gave them a chance to 'think aloud' about things they may not have previously thought about (Cousin, 2009:86). This enabled me to collect rich and detailed sets of data (Saunders et al., 2012). The interviews provided the interviewees with the opportunity to tell their learning stories.

The interviews were recorded using a flip video and notes were made as the interviews progressed. Making notes enabled me to probe the interviewees on the key issues that they had talked about, providing me with more detailed explanations. As I made the notes I also reflected on what the interviewees said in relation to my research questions. Although the notes were in point form, they later assisted me in my analysis as they reminded me of the major points that the interviewees had raised. Recording data using a flip video allowed me to concentrate on questioning and listening to the interviewees. It also provided an accurate and unbiased record that was permanent (Saunders et al., 2012). The interviews were later transcribed.

4.2.2 Observations

In addition to interviews, I collected data from lecture room observations conducted in six lectures. The observations were mainly used as a follow-up on some of the interviews to corroborate what the respondents had reported during the interviews, but more importantly to gain information about different aspects of lecturers' learning. I was able to observe students' participation, lecturers' facilitation and the different environments in which students' learning takes place and how lecturers learn from students and the learning environments they create in class. In one case, a second observation was carried out to gain more insight into the teaching approach of pairing up students as in the previous class the lecturer had not been able to apply it fully. The repeat was also in line with Maxwell's (2013) recommendation that observation should be carried out at least more than once.

Whilst interviews provided an insight to how lecturers had learned in formal settings and informal settings, situations to which I could not gain observational access, observations were particularly important for getting to learn the theory-in-use (Maxwell, 2013). In this study, the two data collection methods complemented each other and provided reliable

data. The use of both methods allowed me to gain an in-depth understanding and provided diverse perspectives and thus created a more complex understanding of how lecturers learn in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya.

4.3 The population and sampling

The target population consisted of lecturers and directors of the teaching and learning centers in private universities in Kenya. Participants in this study were lecturers from four private universities fictionalized as ABC University, DJK University, MUN University, and TJR University. As earlier explained in Chapter Three, most private universities in Kenya tend to admit students who have relatively lower academic grades but from more advantaged social and economic backgrounds. Their tuition fees, which are relatively high, are funded by parents and/or guardians and not by the government (Odhiambo, 2016).

The rationale of choosing private universities as earlier explained in section 3.3 is that some of the private universities had programmes that could enable me collect relevant data. Maxwell (2013: 97) points out that 'selecting those times, settings and individuals that can provide you with information that you need to answer your research questions is the most important consideration in qualitative selection decisions.'

The private universities selected in this study were those whose lecturers had participated in PCAP and/or had initiated some programmes on academic staff development. Although five private universities were initially targeted, one was dropped after a pilot survey indicated that very little in terms of lecturers' learning was happening in that university and most of the lecturers who had the PCAP qualification were no longer teaching at the university. A sample of 28 respondents; 25 lecturers and three directors was used. This sample was adequate as the emphasis of the study was to gain in-depth insights on how lecturers learn in formal and in informal settings. According to Lockyer (2008:710), 'for most qualitative studies, the goals of the research emphasize an in-depth and highly contextualized understanding of specific phenomena, and such goals are well-suited to small sample sizes.' The sample was also adequate as there were sufficient

quotes to allow me to be able to choose from a variety of instances of a statement. This was an indication that the saturation point had been reached. Cousin (2009) points out that the saturation point is achieved when new information is not forthcoming. Saunders et al. (2012) note that for a qualitative study, a sample size of 12 is likely to lead to saturation but recommends a sample of 25-30 respondents.

I mainly applied purposive sampling in selecting lecturers in the four universities although I also applied snowball sampling in one university, as explained below, and simple random sampling for the teaching observations. With purposive sampling one uses his or her judgment to select a sample that will best enable him or her answer the research question(s) and to meet the research objectives (Saunders et al., 2012). I applied purposive sampling to achieve a representative sample in terms of gender and discipline (See Appendix 3). I also purposely targeted those lecturers who had attended staff development programmes since my objective was to find out how lecturers learn in both formal and informal settings. The mix in terms of gender and discipline tended to provide balanced findings and the conclusions that were made adequately represented both male and female lecturers in different disciplines in the four private universities.

I picked the first five interviewees randomly from my university to get a feel of what they had to say and the kind of data I was likely to collect. However, after listening to and transcribing the interviews, one transcription did not provide the required data as the respondent had mainly talked about his learning to teach as a postgraduate student. I realized that to get rich descriptions of how lecturers learn, I had to be deliberate in the selection. I purposively chose lecturers who had undergone some training in my university but also based the selection on their participation in the staff development programmes and for some on students' feedback about their teaching. In the other universities, I mainly selected lecturers who had attended PCAP and the rest were through snowball sampling. The lecturers I had interviewed and the directors in the teaching and learning departments recommended some of their colleagues who had participated in staff development programmes and they were interested in applying the student-learning approach.

It was important to select participants with whom I could establish the most productive relationships that would assist me to best answer my research questions. A number of

lecturers are likely to prefer their teaching to being private than public. To make it public, I had to purposely select 'exemplary' lecturers who were eager to share what they were doing, unlike the 'less proficient' who would have justifiably been concerned about revealing their inadequacies (Maxwell, 2013:199). Table 4.1, below shows the universities that participated and the total number of interviews and the lecture room observations that I carried out.

Table 4.1: The number of interviews and observations

University	*Interviews only (Lecturers)*	*Interviews only (Directors)*	*Interviews and observations (Lecturers)*	*Total interviews and observation (Lecturers and Directors)*
DJK	4	1	1	6
MUN	4	1	1	6
TJR	4	1	1	6
ABC	13		3*	15
TOTAL	25	3	5	33

3 One respondent was observed twice*

4.4 Data analysis

4.4.1 Content analysis

The approach I applied in analyzing data was content analysis. According to Julien (2008:120), content analysis is 'an intellectual process of categorizing qualitative textual data into clusters of similar entities or conceptual categories to identify consistent patterns and relationships between variables or themes. It is used to show up patterns, themes and explanations found in the text. This can be accomplished by a systematic way of coding and categorizing (Cousin, 2009). A qualitative approach to content analysis 'begins with deep close reading of text and attempting to uncover the less obvious

contextual or latent content therein' (Julien, 2008:121). The coding and categorization that was carried out in this study is explained below.

I first transcribed the video-taped interviews and imported them into Atlas.ti. a software that is user friendly with different types of primary data format (text, graphic, audio, and video). It also has most of the essential capabilities for different types of analyses (Rambaree, 2007). Julien (2008) notes the importance of using qualitative software in cases where content analysis is applied. To identify the transcriptions easily while maintaining anonymity, I used pseudonyms to label the transcriptions in Atlas.ti. However, other identifications (P1, P2, P3…) for each transcription were automatically generated once the transcriptions were imported into Atlas.ti. This further assisted in identifying the interviewees without including their names on the primary documents (transcriptions).

The use of the qualitative software, Atlas.ti enabled me to generate quasi-statistics. This made the coding explicit and more precise. For most codes, the frequency was evidence of the saturation points. To support the interpretation of the findings, I had two or more quotes to choose from. The codes with low frequencies provided the outliers and this informed me of which transcriptions to revisit and learn more about.

I read through all the transcriptions line by line, paragraph by paragraph, thinking and reflecting on what each was describing. According to Julien (2008), the level at which content analysis occurs varies widely, from obvious surface-level groups of similar responses to a particular interview question to deeper insights inferred from more sustained, iterative, and recursive interaction with textual data.

I coded the transcriptions using in vivo and initial coding. Saldaña (2009:3) defines in vivo coding as 'the code that is taken directly from what is said' and initial coding as 'first impression' coding derived from an open-ended process. It entails breaking down data into discrete parts, closely examining them and comparing them for similarities and differences. The first code-list (Appendix 4a) that I generated consisted of all types of codes, that is, both open coded and in vivo codes, as the codes were about what the datum was describing. With time, the code-list became long and through re-reading the

quotations and reflecting on the codes, those with high frequency, I refined and reduced the code list by creating code families or categories (Appendix 4b and 4c) such as: 'concerns', 'learning', 'peers', 'constraint' and 'self', and sub-categories in line with the model below (Saldaña, 2009: 13) recommends for data analysis. The structuring of the code list enabled me to re-think the initial codes and to develop them conceptually as shown in (Appendix 4b).

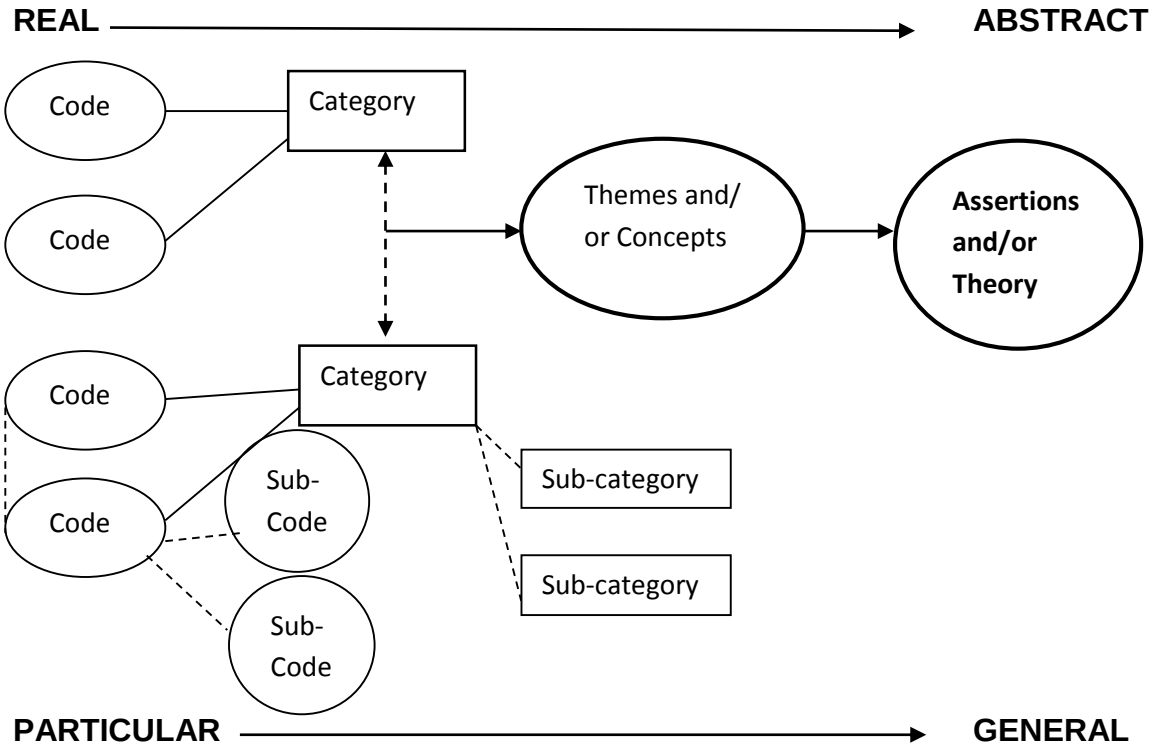

Figure 4.1: A streamlined codes-to-theory model for qualitative inquiry, (Saldaña 2009:13)

4.4.2 Analysis tools

I analyzed data using tables, bar charts, network views, reports and memos as explained below.

4.4.2.1 Codebook

I prepared a code book (Appendix 5) to analyze the data. Saldaña (2009:24), states that a codebook is a 'compilation of codes, their content description and a brief data example for reference'. In the codebook I was able to relate codes or categories to my research questions. I was able to record decisions made in the classification of raw empirical data into categories for analysis. Included in the codebook were examples of the quotes that related to a code and the frequency of each code.

4.4.2.2 Primary document tables (PD- tables) and bar charts

The primary document tables (PD-table) showing the frequency of the quotations for each respondent revealed the magnitude of purposively selected codes. This enabled me to know what transcripts to read again to gain more insight and information in relation to the different research questions (Appendix 6a).

The frequencies in Table 1 for P25 are all zeros, indicating that none of those codes appeared in P 25's transcript. In the Table (Appendix 6a), a frequency of 7, for example, under P4 and 'Learning self' indicated that there was a lot of learning from self by P4. Whereas the Table showed the frequency of the codes under each respondent, the information was only appropriate in indicating the magnitude of certain responses. This enabled a more efficient analysis of the relevant transcripts. To visualize and explore the data further, bar charts similar to the one in Appendix 6b were drawn from the codes in the PD-table against each respondent.

4.4.2.3 Network views

By creating a network view for each code and/or each code family I was able to relate links between: 1) the code-code. 2) Codes- related quotations. 3) Code families (category) - related quotations (Appendices 7a, 7b, 7c and 7d). The networks enabled me to discover the links that were created during the coding such as: 'student development is a cause for concern, more so in the affective domain, while personal and professional development is associated with the concern for university ethos' (Appendix 7b). In

addition, I was able to link categories to some themes as shown in (Appendix 7c), that is, the association of concerns, commitment and one's background with agency.

For most of the codes and the code families, I imported related quotations as shown in (Appendix 7d). I reflected on the quotations as the layout enabled me to read across the quotations and conceptualize. Appendix 7d shows the code on peer teaching- PE-Formal limitations and the associated quotations. Although, initially the code 'PE-Formal limitations' had 13 quotations by reflecting and re-arranging were reduced to eight. Below is a summary of my reflection on the eight quotations.

> 'Peer teaching is about exposing lecturers' teaching to 'public scrutiny'. The emotion 'fear': 'I do it with trepidation, lack of confidence in self, the 'acting' the wanting to be perfect all suggest the 'fear' in the lecturers. Where teaching observation is a requirement, then lecturers do not have a choice but to be observed or to observe. The practice is constraining in the sense that some lecturers have interpersonal issues, the teaching and learning conditions such as large class sizes could be constraining. Unknown to the observer, the feedback might be on the observed (lecturer's) weaker areas. Such feedback is likely to lead to an outbound trajectory in the lecturers' learning to teach.'

4.4.2.4 Reports

In addition to the display of quotations in Appendix 7d, I generated reports that provided details of specific quotations linked to a particular code (Appendix 8). I read through each quotation and related it to the descriptions in the codebook and what I had read in the literature, after which I began to generate themes (see Appendix 8). Saldaña (2009:14) points out that a 'theme is an outcome of coding, categorization or analytic reflection. It is a phrase or sentence describing more subtle and tacit processes.' For example, 'learning process' was a code but 'intentional' means a deliberate learning process while 'unintentional' means 'accidental' learning process. 'Intentional and unintentional' became a theme.

4.4.2.5 Memos

Whereas codes and categories are a result of 'noticing' and 'collecting things', memos act as containers for collecting ideas, they assist in 'thinking about things' (Friese, 2012:228). Memo writing assisted me to document and reflect on the coding process and code choices. I used the memos in Atlas.ti to carry out first and second cycle coding. First cycle coding is a process that happens during the initial coding of data while second cycle require analytical skills (Saldaña, 2009). The process enabled me to reflect on the emergent patterns, categories and subcategories. Saldaña (2009: 41) points out that 'memos enable one to see how the process of inquiry is shaping up and the themes and concepts that emerge from the interpretation of the data all possibly leading toward theory'.

Memoing the reflections on each transcript (Appendix 9) allowed me to see links between the categories and raise questions that I was yet to explore, but most importantly, interpret the data in relation to the literature and the research questions. Cousin (2009:42) notes that when using memos, 'you are thinking with the data and you can also use memos to register thoughts about your own positionality with respect to the categories and linkages you are generating.' In thinking about the categories and sub-categories and in some cases connecting them to the literature, I began generating 'conceptual hooks' that allowed for abstractions and explanations from the text (Cousin, 2009:143).

The analytical process as explained above enabled me to have deeper insights inferred from more sustained iterative and recursive rather than linear interactions with textual data. The use of the above-mentioned tools depended on the kind of analysis I was doing at a particular time which could be memoing and using PD-tables or reports to understand the data. The qualitative software, Atlas.ti. made the data analysis process relatively smooth. I was able to move from one transcript to another, check on the required code in any transcript and attach my reflections on a particular transcript or quotation. It enabled me analyze data and generate reports that were invaluable to the study (Basit, 2003).

4.5 Validation and trustworthiness

The researchers' subjectivity may have an effect on the validity and/or trustworthiness of a study. According to Maxwell (2013:122), validity refers to the 'correctness or credibility of a description, conclusion, explanation, interpretation or other sort of account.' The most important validity threats to the conclusions of a qualitative study are researcher bias and reactivity. Maxwell (2013:124) notes that research bias is about selection of data that fits the researcher's existing theory, goals and points that 'stand out' while reactivity is the influence of the researcher on the setting or individuals studied.

After interacting with lecturers over a period of time through staff seminars and workshops, in the 'café' and on email I realized that there is a lot of learning that goes on in the lecturer's life. The kind of lecturers' learning I was interested in was interactive learning, where the lecturer interacts freely with the students, colleagues and industry in terms of their learning, assessment and feedback, and reflective practice.

With this kind of background, there were chances of being subjective in the way I approached the research. Cousin (2009) suggests that the best way to deal with subjectivity is to acknowledge it. I read a lot of literature on academic practice to learn more about my research area. I discussed my problem with one of the visiting professors and he suggested the topic: 'Exploratory study of academic development and its consequences for pedagogy performance: A case study of Strathmore University'. Over time, I discussed my work with colleagues and my supervisors and the topic evolved to: 'Towards sustainable lecturers' learning in Kenyan Private Universities', incorporating more universities and lecturers.

Throughout the study, I endeavoured to reduce bias and enrich my study:

- I read widely but remained focused on my problem area.
- I worked with colleagues - anyone who cared to listen or read my work. Any feedback was a learning experience.
- I read and wrote, I did not just read.
- I reviewed literature and synthesized according to the research questions.

- I applied exploratory research design to a certain extent.
- I was consistent in the philosophy behind my study in my research design and methodology, and analysis of the findings.

Also the validity threat of reactivity was likely to arise because I had worked with a number of the respondents earlier on in relation to their learning to teach. Therefore the possibility of them reporting what they thought I wanted to hear existed because they would want to show that what I had taken them through was a success (Cousin, 2009).

To minimize my influence on participants, I included in the sample lecturers whom I had never been in contact with before. A mixture of lecturers from different universities, some of whom were recommended by their colleagues provided reports that were less likely to have been influenced by their prior relationships with me. For those that I had contact with before, the probing of what they had said ended up providing more in depth reports. Maxwell (2013:125) points out that it is not easy to eliminate the actual influence of the researcher. So the goal should not be to eliminate but to understand how the interviewees and the interview situation could be influenced by the interviewer.

In this study, I mainly adhered to a number of strategies that Maxwell (2013:126) suggests that can be applied in cases of validity threats. He suggests the following strategies: intensive, long-term involvement, rich data, respondent validation, intervention, searching for discrepant evidence and negative cases, triangulation, numbers and comparison.

Although I had worked with lecturers for some time on their teaching in the formal settings I really did not know what to expect by the end of the data collection process. I approached the study with an open mind and what the respondents reported was beyond my expectations in terms of depth of insight, openness, willingness to share, the content of the interviews and their positive attitude towards the training. I ended up learning so much and appreciating the effort universities were putting into training their lecturers. I also learned about the emotions that lecturers experience and this is an area that I had not thought about before this study.

On the day of the interviews, I ensured that the location of the interview was appropriate for the interviewees. I interviewed them either in my university or theirs depending on the

location that was convenient to them. This assisted in ensuring that they were at ease and talked about their experiences freely. Since all the interviews were video-taped, I informed them about the recording and sought their consent. I made notes during the interviews and probed the respondents thereafter. The probing was based on what they had said earlier in the interviews and since most of them were talking about their day-to-day activities they tended to be at ease when answering the questions.

During the research period, which was over a number of years, I also verified some of the findings with the respondents or other lecturers, for example, those who had just participated in a particular academic staff programme on teaching. During the study, I also taught and through my encounters with students and colleagues, I was able to personally confirm insights about some of the facts in the collected and analyzed data. I also attended and presented some of my findings at conferences and workshops related to teaching and learning and this helped me gain more insights about lecturers' learning. According to Maxwell (2013:126), 'sustained presence of the researcher in the setting studied can help rule out spurious associations and premature theories.' A number of my colleagues and my supervisors read through my work, adding to the plausibility of my account.

The conclusions in this study were based on what Maxwell (2013:127) refers to as 'rich data.' During data collection, as noted earlier in section 4.2, I used field notes while probing the interviewees. The interviews were recorded and later transcribed verbatim. The transcriptions provided a permanent source of data that I was able to read through a number of times. The class observations were video-taped and notes taken of specific major events that I observed. The post-observation discussions also provided better understanding of what I had observed.

In this study, I collected data from a diverse range of lecturers in terms of gender, discipline and department. A balance in terms of gender and discipline was consciously made when selecting the respondents. Interviews and teaching observations were the main data collection methods. Using the two methods of interviewing and observations reduced the risk of 'chance association and of systematic biases' that were likely to be associated with a specific method (Maxwell, 2013:128). Each method had its strengths

and weaknesses and the use of the two methods complemented each other. Nonetheless, Maxwell (2013:128) points out that rather than rely on the selection of methods in general to reduce threats to validity, it is better to think about what particular source of error or bias might exist and deal with it in a specific way.

4.6 Ethical considerations

Saunders (2010:226) notes that research ethics are the 'standards of behaviour that guide a researcher's conduct in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of the researcher's work and are affected by it.' An ethical framework is important as it cushions the researcher and protects the researched and it is 'facilitative' (Cousin, 2009:17). An ethics orientation supports the thoughtful conduct of the research process and the eventual credibility of the report. The ethical considerations that I implemented followed the ethical principles as noted by Saunders et al. (2012). They include: Integrity and objectivity, respect for others, privacy of those taking part, voluntary consent of participation, informed consent of those taking part, ensuring confidentiality of data and maintenance of anonymity of those taking part, responsibility in the analysis data and reporting of findings. I applied the stated principles during the various stages of my research, that is, at proposal, data collection and data analysis stages.

Generally this study posed a minimum risk because participants were lecturers who were colleagues and were eager to participate in the study. Therefore, the study was not likely to affect them in any way at both personal and professional levels. However, any ethical issues that were likely to arise at the proposal, data collection and data analysis and reporting stages as per the above principles were considered and taken care of as explained below.

4.6.1 Proposal stage

Consent to participate in research

At the proposal stage, the main ethical issue was obtaining the universities' consent to participate. Using the university's participation consent form (see Appendix 10), I formally requested permission to conduct research in the five (one was dropped later) universities.

The use of the consent form helped me to clarify the boundaries of the research and to adhere to the content in the form later on in the study. The design of the study was such that it also adhered to the stipulated details in the consent form and to the expectations of the four universities.

I also sought and received clearance from Stellenbosch University Ethics Committee to collect data (Appendix 11).

4.6.2 Data collection

Informed consent

Ethical considerations formed an ongoing part of the research as my respondents were lecturers. Firstly, I formally requested for permission to interview some of their lecturers and the directors of the teaching and learning departments from the management of the universities. According to Cousin (2009:22), 'informed consent is about ensuring that participants in a study are aware of its purpose and their role within it'. Secondly, I requested specific lecturers verbally, to participate in the study but for those that I did not, I sent them an email or talked to them on phone about my intention of interviewing them and the kind of data that I intended to collect. Thirdly, I met them on appointment, where I further explained my intention and provided them with the participant's informed consent form (Appendix 10b) to read through, ask any questions and sign. All the participants willingly agreed to participate and none was coerced into participating and there was no promise of monetary gain. Before the interviews and the observations, I informed participants of my intention to video-tape them, which they consented to. The participants were also informed about the transcribing of the interviews. Cousin (2009:78) points out that 'informed consent often needs to be ongoing rather than a preliminary stage of the interviewing'. Preliminary analysis of some of the transcriptions was later sent to participants for comments.

The use of semi-structured interviews, unlike structured interviews, allowed me to be flexible and responsive to what the interviewees were saying. The collected data tended to be in line with what the participants had said as I had recorded and later transcribed

verbatim. Although I contracted a few people to transcribe some of the interviews, I ensured that the transcribers were not familiar with the interviewees. The transcribed data were saved on my laptop where access was protected by a password.

4.6.3 Data analysis and reporting

In analyzing data, I paid attention to my position as a researcher so as not to influence the research with my own biography and assumptions.

Pseudonyms were used in identifying the participants during the analysis, in the discussion chapter and in dissemination of the findings. I anonymized the participants' and the institutions' identities in the findings.

During data analysis, I avoided 'cherry picking' to ensure that analysis confirmed what the respondents had said as much as possible. Memos, PD-tables, charts, code-book and network views enabled me not to be selective about which data to report.

In the discussion I used 'themes' that considered issues across participants and universities instead of individual lecturers and universities.

The conclusions were based on the research questions and theoretical perspectives from other studies.

4.7 Summary

In this chapter, the exploratory and explanatory research design has been presented and discussed. The design is used to gain some insights on lecturers' learning and later explain the causal relationships between the structural and cultural emergent properties that enable and constrain the concerns held by lecturers and their courses of action.

In the following chapters; 5, 6 and 7 the analysis of the data in relation to the main research question and the findings related to the five specific research questions stated at the beginning of this chapter are analyzed and discussed.

CHAPTER 5

LEARNING TO TEACH - THE OUTCOME

5.0 Introduction

In chapters 5, 6 and 7, I present the analysis of the findings. The aim of this chapter is to analyze and discuss data that answer the first research question on the outcome of lecturers' learning to teach in both formal and informal settings. To explore how lecturers' learn in private universities in Kenya, I found it necessary to first analyze the outcome and then explain the causal powers that lead to the outcome, that is, I applied retroduction. I analyzed data from T^4: the structural, cultural and group elaboration or stability (outcome) through to T^2-T^3: social interaction to T^1: social, cultural and group conditioning as per Archer's (1995) morphogenetic approach. According to Archer (1995:166), at T^4 either morphogenesis or morphostasis occurs. Morphogenesis refers to those processes which tend to elaborate or change a system's given form, state or structure. Morphogenesis is about change while morphostasis is about stability. The outcome in lecturers' learning to teach is about change and therefore I considered the outcome as instances of morphogenesis.

The respondents learned in both formal and informal settings. What, how and from whom they learned is analyzed later. However, from their comments I was able to establish the outcome as: application of a learner-centered approach, perceived effect on student learning experience, affirmation of lecturers' current practices and growth at personal and professional level.

5.1 Applying a learner-centered approach

The total number of respondents who applied what they had learnt were twenty- three (92%). Using the knowledge, skills and values acquired mainly in the formal settings, the respondents reported that they facilitate students' learning rather than transmit

knowledge. From the analysis twenty-three of them were applying at least a step of the learner-centered approach. The respondents' comments indicated that good teaching was about: planning for the courses in advance and with students, which is analyzed under student engagement at the planning stage; engaging students in academic tasks that were meaningful and purposeful, that is, facilitation of students' participation; providing time and space to reflect and to learn to do so during assessment and feedback and to learn mainly from formative course evaluation.

5.1.1 Student engagement at the planning stage

The respondents seemed to have learned how to be intentional in their teaching, particularly at the planning stage. Aspects of planning were identified through comments given by eight respondents. Jebu was emphatic about being deliberate about planning and doing it in advance. She stressed that: 'you plan, you plan in advance…I have to deliver… I have to deliberately think about.' Likewise, Jos stressed the importance of planning, more so for students' activities. He explained how planning for students' activities was now ingrained in his teaching:

> Since Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PCAP), whenever I teach, every other course I teach I plan an activity. I have to do it, there is no way I can go to class and do things off the cuff without knowing what I am doing. I give a bit of input for not more than 20 minutes or so and then an activity. A short input again then an activity. It is sort of inbuilt. That I find I do it every time. (Jos)

Similarly, a comment from Raka was on planning but in a more structured way:

> Another thing I did after PCAP was I actually did a course outline where I included learning activities and even alignment of learning outcomes and activities. That is something I had not thought about before. I may have done alignment accidentally like with the business planning but it was not something intentional. (Raka)

In planning learning activities, lecturers such as Jebu and Jos focus on identifying the tasks that students need to do in order to learn the material rather than on the tasks that the lecturers need to do in order to present or transmit knowledge. Such learning activities tend to enable students to engage in a dialogue which has a potential to challenge beliefs and produce conceptual changes (Wright, 2011). Biggs and Tang (2011) assert that students who engage in meaningful and purposeful learning tasks tend to adopt a deep learning approach.

Furthermore, the basic premise of constructive alignment is that the course is designed so that learning activities and assessment tasks are aligned with the intended learning outcomes. This ensures that the whole learning system is consistent and therefore accessible to most students. Lecturers who attend and participate actively in academic staff development programmes are likely to design their courses, in such a way that it is accessible to most students, since the lecturers understand and have the knowledge and skills to do so (Vorster & Quinn, 2012).

Other respondents allowed students to exercise freedom of expression and control by letting them plan for the classes. A comment from Sey demonstrated how she planned with her students:

> Since I decided to adopt a learner-centered approach, I no longer plan my classes alone. I plan my classes with the students. Each week I get two students, I work with. I call them my co-facilitators. We are operating at the same level. (Sey).

Planning with students demonstrates good teaching as it aims to foster the sense of student control over learning and interest, to a certain extent, in the subject matter. However, this is likely to work well in cases where classes are smaller and students are interested in taking some responsibility for their learning. Iversen, Pedersen, Krogh and Jensen (2015) suggest the need for lecturers to change students' mindsets, particularly as students have been made to believe that the teacher is the 'sage on the stage'. Lecturers need to help students adopt a different mindset about their education, one in

which they think about their future, have power to pursue their interests and assume responsibility for their learning (Iversen et al., 2015).

When lecturers plan for students' learning activities they are thoughtful about their students' learning. Thoughtfulness, is about being 'reflective and 'critical' and of being ethically sensitive and considerate (Light et al., 2008:41). According to Light et al. (2008) thoughtfulness draws upon the virtues of fidelity and courage. Harvard (2007) notes that: 'courage is the sacrifice of self for the realization of prudent and just goals'. For a lecturer to plan with the students and allow them to facilitate the sessions, he or she requires courage. Light et al. (2008:42) contend that 'courage requires the recognition and acceptance of one's vulnerability and responsibility to mutually shared freedoms of the other'.

The planning also took place at departmental level. A comment from Mao indicated that she had enforced planning for students' learning at departmental level. Mao stressed the importance of effective teaching as: 'That, I learnt from PCAP that if you want to succeed, prepare, and if you want to fail, do not prepare; so all the lecturers in my department prepare.' Although planning for students' activities is crucial in effective teaching and some lecturers find it natural to plan for students' learning, others may not plan due to reasons such as lack of time, skills and knowledge. However, as indicated in the above comment, the kind of leadership practised at departmental level can enforce such practices as designing of courses by most if not all lecturers.

Three respondents, over time, reflected on how else they could involve students in their learning from the beginning of the semester. They viewed knowing and to an extent achieving students' expectations as a way of engaging students in their learning. Consequently at the beginning of the semester, in their course outlines, they incorporated students' expectations. Ane, for example, emphasized the importance of having the student in mind right from the first day:

> On the first day, my students do not learn much but they answer three questions on their expectations; what they expect from this class that helps me get to know

> where they are coming from and immediately I would want to assure them what is doable, what they might be able to achieve and what they might not be able to achieve. (Ane)

Likewise, Dia realized that while lecturers inform students of their expectations, in most cases students are not given a chance to express their expectations. 'We never ask them their expectations' Dia noted. Like Ane, she also decided that for students to experience learning she needed to ascertain their expectations but through her guided questions and reflections:

> Actually before this semester started, I was reflecting on how I always tell my students that I expect them to attend class but I never ask them what it is they expect from me. So I came up with four questions on their expectations. (Dia)

Incorporating students' expectations, by the above respondents, was moving beyond existing routines of handing in a course outline to students without bothering about its suitability. According to Maote and Cox (2015) the learner-centered approach tends to be non-linear, multi-dimensional and a phenomenon that happens relationally within a social context. It favours a democratic approach to teaching. This implies that course plans should not be rigid, some flexibility is required. A comment from Rasa illustrated the need of being flexible as a way of engaging students in their learning:

> You prepare a lesson, you reach in the classroom and there are always questions being asked. You suddenly realize something that you had not thought of. There is always something new, different that you learn when you let students ask questions. (Rasa)

Whilst planning in advance and in a structured way acts as a roadmap to students' learning, some flexibility is necessary to respond to the unexpected teaching and learning opportunities that class situations present. Class situations tend to be dynamic and

lecturers need to respond instantaneously in terms of judgments and decisions, so as to take advantage of the learning and teaching opportunities (Pollard, 2010:5).

Incorporating the needs of an individual student in the planning seemed to have been important to one respondent. Riso's comment indicated that he considered the uniqueness of each student or group of students in relation to his subject, and not vice versa:

> The difference that has been there since the training is that I have learned to appreciate that each student is unique. The syllabus can be the same but the students are unique...The main thing I learned from the training is that you need to appreciate the diversity of these students at different times, not necessarily making the syllabus longer or shorter but being able to appreciate that each student or group of students is unique. (Riso)

Students have different learning styles and at times require individual attention. However, lecturers tend to use the syllabus to cover the content without considering students' needs. Weimer (2013) asserts that lecturers need to use the course content not to cover the syllabus but to enable students' learning and to develop skills such as study skills, time management, presentation and communication skills, writing skills and analytical skills.

Students' learning in general is a social practice as it is about the relations between the learners, their actions and the world (Lave & Wenger, 1991). However 'to do', a person has to actively participate in the practice. In a student-focused approach students' participation is paramount. Generally, participation involves 'doing, talking, thinking, feeling and belonging' and it shapes not only what people do but also who they are and how they interpret what they do (Wenger, 1999:4). According to Tom (2015), lecturers who adopt a learner-centered approach value a collaborative approach to teaching and learning and one that honours students' wisdom and contribution. In the next section, I analyze how the respondents facilitated students' participation in a collaborative way.

5.1.2 Facilitation of students' participation

To get most students to use the level of cognitive processes needed to achieve the intended outcomes that more academic students use spontaneously, comments from five respondents indicated that they facilitated students' participation. They facilitated the participation in such a way that they let students take control of some of their learning. A comment from Jos demonstrated how categorical he was about students' participation:

> I move away from the podium, of the one who knows; of the lecturer and I sit with the students at the same level and discuss with them issues and sometimes the classes can become quite involving'. The idea of students' learning being participatory is not negotiable. When I am teaching I have to think of, how I will involve my students in the lesson, all of them! We have jelled almost as sort of opposed to before PCAP where I could just read from my scripts; I would be dictating my notes. (Jos)

Similarly, to encourage students' participation Jebu, who had asked students to write portfolios, pointed to the need to allow students to have freedom over their learning but simultaneously, to provide clear guidelines to the students:

> When you give students clear directions and when you are guiding them and telling them that we are learning this together, I haven't done this before, you haven't done this before but we think this is how it is done. I learnt that they are not daft. With little guidance they will do it and that was my job; to give them guidance and I made it a point every day before the lecture, I would ask 'So how are you doing with the portfolios? Is there something you want me to clarify? They would ask questions. (Jebu)

The role of education, among other things, is to prepare students for the unknown future. This means that lecturers should endeavour to create a questioning and analytical mind in the students (Iversen et al., 2015). This, as mentioned in the above comments, can happen where lecturers appreciate students' contributions (Tom, 2015). The lecturers, in

this study, tended to be guides but they let the students they were guiding walk on their own. However, for it to happen, they planned for students' activities in advance and for every lesson as stated in section 5.1.1. According to Weimer (2013), when lecturers maintain the facilitator's role of guidance or advisor, they let students take charge of their learning, hence create a balance of power.

More than ten respondents commented on the use of appropriate academic tasks in class. Jebu, for example, pointed out that to balance the cognitive and affective domain she involved students in their learning through a variety of activities. 'In my double lectures I have made it a principle never to teach for two hours. If I teach for one the students talk for the other one. There is always a variety of methods and I try to use videos'.

Most of the respondents encouraged students' participation by engaging them in meaningful learning activities, but one graded most of the activities to enhance students' participation. A comment from Mao showed that her intention was not just to engage students in learning activities for the sake of it:

> When I go to class it is not just talk, it is not about me, it is about the students. How do I involve my students in the learning activities? I encourage students to work in groups; they form groups and make presentations. I don't just mark questions in the assignments. I mark all activities that are involved in discussion forums, group presentations and participation in their groups. (Mao)

A number of respondents reported that to increase students' participation, they engaged their students in the following activities that they had learnt in the formal settings.

Buzz groups

Ane used buzz groups in her classes:

> Buzz groups are just short discussion groups, normally in the form of a semi-circle... When I am talking of buzz group discussions, I am talking more of three people learning one thing. That brings closer someone who would be a little bit far... classes have been more participative than before. (Ane)

Group discussions/presentations

Group discussions and presentations were used by a number of the respondents though their main problem with using groups was how to ensure that all students participated. However, a comment from Romu illustrated how she ensured that each group member participated in the group work: 'I pick on a group member in class at random, to answer a question on a previously given reading assignment. A correct response is a point to each group member if not then each member loses a point'.

Similarly, Dia's comment demonstrated how she improved group effectiveness by setting questions on each of the topic that the students presented:

> I prepare questions for each topic per group give the questions to the students in each group before the presentations. At the end of each presentation I ask, each group member, a question at random. This ensures that each group member is conversant with the topic and the questions also act as a guide to their reading and presentations. (Dia)

Cases and debates

Cases were mainly used in the postgraduate classes. However, the participation level tended to reduce as the semester progressed. A comment from Tas showed how he continually engaged students.

> After applying case study method for some time, I noticed that at one point, student participation was very high but towards the last weeks the level of participation went down. So I give a name to that as case fatigue, where the level of participation

> is low because the amount of time allocated for preparation is low. So one of the innovations was to use the debate method in the cases, where I assign a group to take up on a position, then they have to prepare as a group not individually. That is why I purposely schedule my debate on the ninth week to sustain the engagement of the students. (Tas)

Lecturers engage students in learning activities when they facilitate students' participation. But to ensure that students continually participate, lecturers vary the learning activities within a particular topic or over time during the semester. Behind the activities there are reinforcements such as questions to be answered and/or awarding of marks, to sustain the students' interest and involvement, engagement and responsibility (Ramsden, 2003). However, to facilitate such learning activities, lecturers require a repertoire of knowledge and skills which may be acquired when lecturers learn in both formal and informal settings.

The kind of activities that the respondents in this study engaged students in tended to be meaningful and purposeful. This was confirmed during the class observations. Jos, for example, engaged his students in the following learning tasks: role play and working in groups of threes. The activities were stimulating and they made the learning interesting and energized the class. Similarly, the pairing up by Daw and the mentorship program by Sey, were observed during the class observations. Kahe also engaged his students actively in their learning to a point where a student was able to detect an error he had made in his workings on the chalkboard. This study shows that lecturers practiced the 'relational' instead of 'individualistic' model (Bennet, 1998:12) to enhance students' learning. The relational model is about recognizing the importance and worth of others, 'the focus on the other is not merely an intellectual acknowledgement but a concern for the others by being hospitable and thoughtful' (Light et al., 2008: 41).

5.1.3 Students' assessment and feedback

In this study, lecturers reported applying formative assessment and using the standards model of assessment. The standards model assesses changes in performance as a result

of learning, for the purpose of seeing what and how well something had been learned based on a criteria (criterion-referenced assessment) rather than comparing a student's performance with that of other students (norm-referenced assessment) (Biggs & Tang, 2011).

Three of the respondents reported that they assessed their students by providing them with adequate time and space to reflect outside class and over time during the semester. A comment from Mao indicated that she preferred work-based students to write teaching portfolios rather than to do examinations. 'During PCAP we learnt about using portfolios to assess students. So I implemented it here on how you can use a teaching portfolio to assess student teachers on teaching practice at a distance'. Mao further demonstrated how she used portfolios as an assessment tool:

> When you move students from examination environment to preparing portfolios they become very enthusiastic. They know they have three months to prepare the portfolio, because portfolio assignment cannot be done in a day or week. You give it at the beginning of the trimester and discuss the learning outcomes. At the end of the four months they give you a portfolio, no examination. I would say that they put in more effort as they are not stressed. In addition they collaborate and consult such that when another student's portfolio is good, the others want theirs to be better. (Mao)

According to Moon (2007), learners require time and space in order to reflect and to learn to do so. For Eca, effective students' reflection implied allowing the students to reflect on their values and write them down, what she referred to as 'critical reflective thinking'. According to Eca, 'it is only when we work on the minds of thinkers; the students that society can change for the better'. Below is Eca's account of what one of her students reflected on and documented:

> She says she doesn't know how life would be. She can't imagine how it would be had she not come to my class because she has always thought life made sense when you have a title, property and you are a celebrity. Then somehow she has lost two friends who had all those and life came to a standstill. Generally in every

> class, I push for some values that I think are important. She says, she is going to show how these values are going to or have made sense to her. So, that reflection, to give somebody that opportunity to bring it out, I think that is very important.

According to Moon (2007), an environment where lecturers encourage reflection can lead to personal issues to be unearthed in the learner that may seem unrelated to the task as with Eca's student but are important for students' personal growth.

Only one respondent reported on students' assessment in terms of examination. After learning in the formal settings, Daw began to focus on setting of examinations questions that comprised of mainly high order cognitive questions but with a few questions at a low cognitive level, which to an extent ensured that the set questions were appropriate. He explained:

> You see before we went through PCAP I used to make mistakes especially when it comes to testing; a lot of mistakes. I used to like a lot of discuss questions. I used to think that is the way to set an examination but then I realised that occasionally I should also provide an opportunity to outline some things just to test memory and then ask them questions at high cognitive level. (Daw)

Ramsden (2003) discusses appropriate assessment and feedback as one of the principles of effective teaching. From the above analysis, the respondents seemed to have learned new, varied and more thoughtful ways of assessing students' learning.

5.1.4 Course evaluation

The use of summative and formative evaluation normally relates to students' assessment. However, in this study, the data showed that after learning to teach through formal opportunities a number of respondents at individual and at departmental levels, introduced formative course evaluations. A comment from Ane illustrated how she had facilitated the process at departmental level:

> After PCAP, I also introduced mid-term feedback not only to my class but to the department; that is a requirement. Towards the middle of the term, rather than waiting for the end term evaluation which is compulsory, we do our own midterm evaluations and we ask three questions; what do you like about this subject? what don't you like about this subject?, suggest ways of improving our class and somehow students own the class, they feel they are part of it and they can make suggestions without feeling condemned. I tell lecturers, please whatever feedback you get you do not necessarily have to give it to me, but improve on what you have been told by students.(Ane)

When evaluating a course, the emphasis should be on evaluating the entire process and not just the lecturers. Formative course evaluation when supported by heads of department is likely to bring to the fore, early enough, how productive the course is and whether or not the objectives of the course are being met (Zohrabi, 2012). A number of studies, for example by Trowler and Knight (2000), Thomson, (2015) and Pifer et al. (2015), show that departments play an important role in lecturers' learning. Trowler and Knight (2000) emphasize the importance of departments, more so, the leadership plays a central role in successful professional development.

Comments from five respondents showed that they learned a number of things about the learning process from specific course evaluations that they had introduced. A comment by Neth pointed out that students preferred the learner-centered to teacher-centered approach:

> I have just been looking through some feedback from students in the just ended semester; many students say that participation is helping them to learn because they get the opportunity to exchange ideas with other people on what has been discussed and that helps to deepen their learning or clarify issues for them. (Neth)

The participatory approach she had applied during the semester appeared to enable the students to deepen their learning through interactions with other students.

Rau stated that he used students' feedback to make their learning better:

> So when I know that a strategy that I use is helping students learn, then I reinforce its use. Like now, I know pictures are popular, they score seventy-five to eighty percent feedback in terms of usefulness. I would therefore think how it would be important for me to develop from that, extend it to videos, and take them to YouTube. (Neth)

Other respondents also commented that they had taken action after receiving feedback. A comment from Dia illustrated the action she undertook:

> One of the comments was that the lecturer is fast but that was solved through the group work. I acted on it and in the subsequent evaluation some said that the issue was solved through group work I think some of them appreciated. (Dia)

Lecturers in this study tended to evaluate aspects related directly to the course and those that relate to the interaction between the course or teacher and the students, unlike in summative course evaluation which covers the evaluation of the course and/or the teacher only (Mintu-Wimsatt, Ingram, Milward & Russ, 2006). According to the lecturers in this study, evaluating courses was possible since the concerned lecturers were either facilitating students' participation, using audio or visual aids, and/or wanted feedback on the delivery of the learning material. Lecturers are likely to learn more from course evaluation in instances where they: establish rapport with students, provide feedback to the students, apply active learning strategies, and create opportunities for students to interact with peers (Carbone et al., 2015).

Furthermore, in the above cases, lecturers tended to reflect on the students' feedback and act on it. The use of formative course evaluation such as asking students questions about their learning was likely to prompt reflection in lecturers. This would benefit the curriculum, as self-analysis, self-evaluation and self-development contribute to curriculum development (Zohrabi, 2015).

Ellis and Francl (2015) caution against the use of student evaluation solely to evaluate a course, as students are not mature enough to differentiate between course grades and long-term learning. They note that students' evaluations for a particular lecturer differ when different methods are applied by the same lecturer. Other studies (Mintu-Wimsatt et al., 2006; Ellis & Francl, 2015) have also found no positive correlation between student satisfaction and student learning outcomes. However, Zohrabi (2015) points out that it is worth investing in good teaching as it is also true that students may rate good teaching highly in course evaluations.

5.1.5 Good teaching

Most studies argue that the learner-centered approach, where teaching is regarded as facilitating students' personal construction of knowledge and conceptual change, is appropriate in terms of good teaching. This is in relation to the teacher–focused conception with a content approach and uses the transmission mode. However, Moate and Cox (2015) argue that both approaches could be used but the learner-centred approach should predominate.

Few studies demonstrate the full implementation of the learner-centered approach and how lecturers learn from it in the process. Weimer (2013: 12-15), for instance, points out that students are likely to learn more and better where teaching engages students in learning activities that are well designed; motivates and empowers students by giving them some control over the learning process; encourages collaboration; promotes students' reflection about what and how they are learning and includes explicit learning skills instructions. Weimer (2013:13) asserts that the 'learner-centered approach is about students' learning and teachers making contribution that help learning to happen.' However, she does not to explain how lecturers can learn from the approach and all the stages involved.

This study suggests that if lecturers were to implement all the stages in the learner-centered approach as shown in Figure 5.1, then, lecturers are likely to continually learn and be good teachers. In instances where plans exist then learning to teach is likely to happen as the plans act as a yardstick and lecturers are likely to learn to teach from the

variation (s) between the actual and the planned. Classroom situations are dynamic and provide learning opportunities. Lecturers are likely to learn in instances where they accommodate their plans to enable them to utilize the learning opportunities in the classrooms. The facilitation of students' participation also provides a proper basis for critical engagement by both students and lecturers. Lecturers are likely to learn from meaningful and purposeful learning activities that they engage students in, as such activities tend to sustain the students' interest and engage them intellectually. Lecturers also reflect on students' learning and their teaching in instances where they apply formative and criterion-based assessment and use multiple course evaluation methods.

In this study, most lecturers gave examples of aspects of their teaching that suggested a learner-centred approach. The lecturers practised the facilitative role of a 'guide on the side' as opposed to an expert role of the 'sage on stage'. According to (Weimer 2013:60), 'guides show those who follow the way but those who follow walk on their own.' However, the use of metaphors such as a guide, a coach, or a gardener explains what lecturers are but not what they do (Weimer 2013), and what makes them do what they do to facilitate learning.

Underlying facilitation are values. A comment from Neth showed that she lived her educational values of love, freedom and personal growth and encouraged her students to live the same through the courses she taught. She explained how she lived the values as:

Love: I build good interpersonal relationships between myself and the students amongst the students- based on fostering mutual trust. Freedom: mutual respect for our freedom and responsibility to each other. Foster personal growth in students and myself through the semester.

Some of the values were demonstrated in instances when lecturers 'left the podium' and 'sat with the students at the same level'. When they collected students' expectations about the course and incorporated them in the students' learning, they planned with the students and they collected course evaluation and used the feedback. Such actions call for magnanimity in sharing knowledge production with the students and humility in letting

go of the expert role. Havard (2007:3) points out that magnanimity is about striving for great things. In this study students' learning went beyond passing examinations (see section 5.2). In applying a learner-centered approach the lecturers' objective was to empower students in different ways. Havard (2007: xviii) points out that magnanimity and humility go hand in hand. 'Magnanimity generates noble ambitions while humility channels these ambitions into serving others.' For students to experience learning, lecturers had to be generous and devoted in their teaching practices.

The lecturers were also hospitable, that is, 'open and welcomed students' views' (Light et al 2008:41). When lecturers used formative course evaluation and reflected on the students' feedback, some acted on it. When they collaborated with students they not only engaged with the students' different perspectives but experienced the uncertainty in the teaching approaches, such as in the case studies teaching approach, that one respondent applied. The lecturers continually learned and through the teaching approaches they applied they empowered the students to solve problems at their work places and 'take charge of their lives' as analyzed and discussed in the next section.

Figure 5.1 shows a summary of stages and activities that the respondents implemented when adopting a learner-centered approach. The stages and activities can be useful in understanding what lecturers are capable of doing when they learn to teach in formal and informal settings.

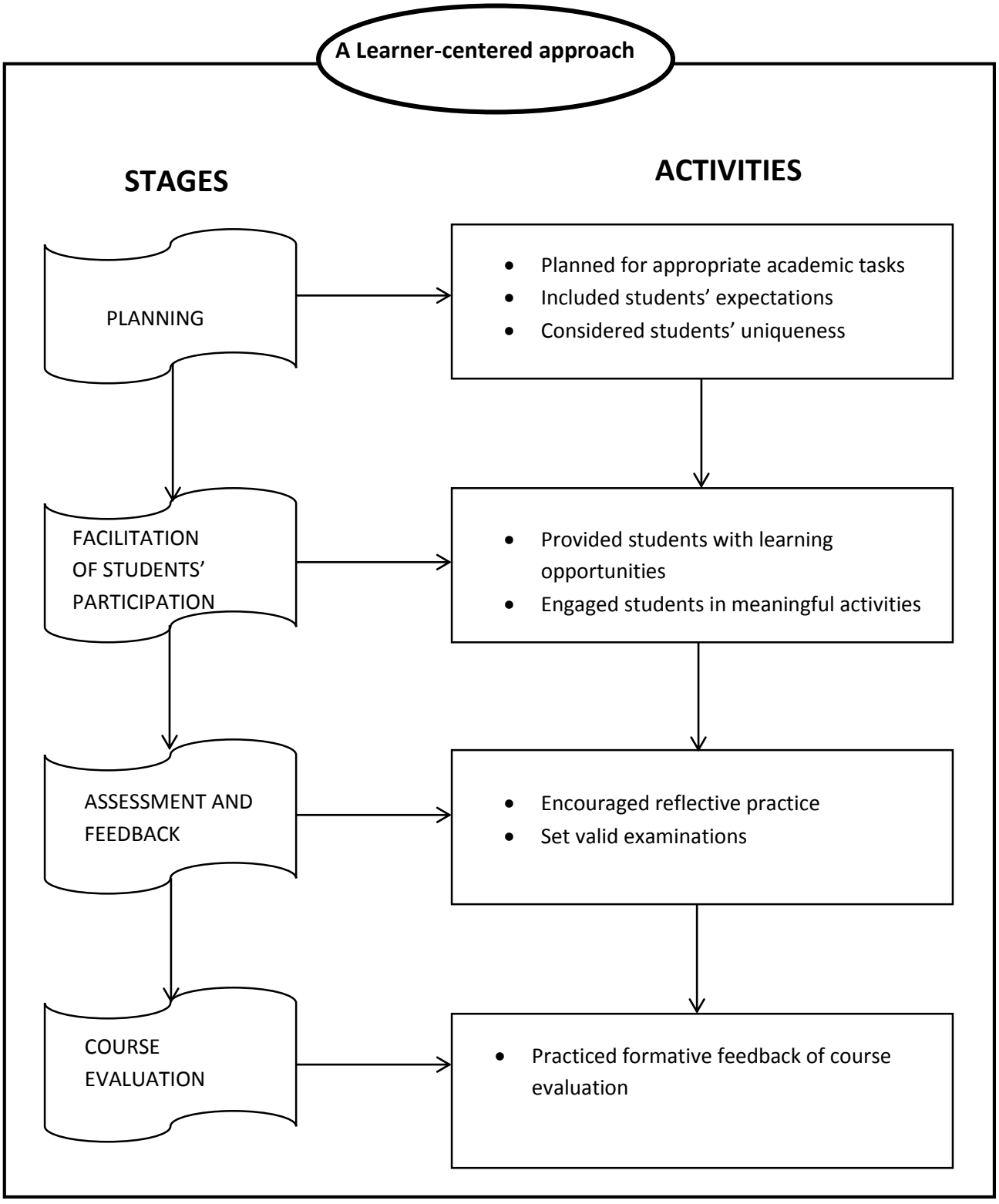

Figure 5.1: Implementation of a learner-centered approach as per the analysis

5.2 Perceived effect on student learning

In this study, the total number of lecturers who perceived learning to teach had an effect on the learners were twenty-four (96%). Apart from the respondents finding that what they had learned was useful in their teaching, most of them reported that they believed that what they learnt facilitated their students' learning, which further motivated them. However, three of them perceived the learning approaches, specifically, the case studies teaching approach, the mentorship programme and living one's educational values, which they applied enabled students' learning to go beyond passing examinations.

Firstly, students were able to solve problems in their workplaces. A comment from Tas demonstrated that some of the cases that he used in his classes were a replica of what was happening in a number of organizations. The students were able to solve problems in their workplaces by relating what they learnt in class to practice:

> In fact as we discuss the case the students look at themselves in the case. 'This is exactly what is happening in our company.' As a matter of fact there are some students who later come to me saying they did one, two three, four things and managed to solve their problem. (Tas)

Secondly, students grew at a personal level and created wealth through self-employment. A comment from Sey demonstrated that she encouraged students to be independent and autonomous such that the majority of her students preferred self-employment to formal employment:

> I have seen a difference from the time I introduced the mentorship programme. Most students are exposed to this mentality of taking charge of their lives. They are not keen on formal employment. Even before they graduate, they register their own companies and get involved in their own productions. They feel in charge, in control, the learning has ceased to be just graduation it is going beyond graduation… I am still in touch with them even when I have consultancy work, I work with them. Normally, I usually joke with them, 'now employ me'. (Sey)

Thirdly, students provided service to society: A comment from Neth indicated that on completing their studies some students engaged in community service and made a difference in their neighbourhood:

> Cleophas has done tremendous things in Kibera [the largest slum in Kenya] where he lives. I taught him two philosophy units. We invited him to talk about his experience growing up in Kibera and what he has done for his people there and for everybody he has come in contact with in Kibera. Basically he thanks the university. A lot revolved around him as a person using his freedom to do good for others. (Neth)

Studies on academic staff development mainly relate lecturers' learning to deep learning approaches where students are able to understand content qualitatively instead of quantitatively through knowledge construction (Biggs & Tang, 2011). However, students' learning as illustrated in the above cases needs to go beyond passing of examinations. This is what Tyler (1949) referred to as a 'learning experience.' According to Tyler (1971:63), 'learning experience is the interaction between the learner and the external conditions in the environment he can react.' It is what the student does that counts. The lecturer's role is to facilitate students' participation by engaging them in meaningful and purposeful learning activities.

The whole range of activities and approaches that can be subsumed within the learner-centred approach facilitated students' learning. Students were allowed to exercise control and responsibility over their learning. This motivated them to solve problems in their workplaces by relating theory to practice and provide service to society and prefer self- to formal employment. The lecturers were able to develop in students, learning skills and the confidence to use the skills within and outside their institutions (Weimer, 2013). For this to happen, there is need for a change in the lecturers' conception of teaching (Ho et al., 2001). Lecturers may also need to use more of the learner-centered instead of teacher-centered approaches (Maote & Cox, 2015), learn in informal settings over time and intentionally align their teaching strategy to their intentions (Trigwell & Prosser, 1996).

5.3. Affirmation of lecturers' current practices

The aim of the academic programmes in formal settings was mainly to assist lecturers to apply a learner-centered approach that would enable most students to be apply a deep learning approach. However, unbeknown to the organizers and even to the lecturers was the fact that some of the lecturers were already practicing this approach. The analysis showed that four out of the twenty-five (20%) lecturers had already been practising aspects of the learner-centred approach.

The affirmation that what the four were doing was appropriate seemed to have made them bolder in their practice. A comment from Neth expressed the fact that the programme was a source of encouragement as it affirmed some of her current practices:

> The Academic Staff Development Programme (ASDP) was an encouragement on the way forward. ASDP also helped me in confirming those techniques that I was already using. It was an encouragement for me to continue with the effort of trying to improve my teaching practice in different ways from one semester to the other. (Neth)

Another comment from Eca indicated that when seminars on critical reflective teaching were introduced at her university, they increased her confidence in what she had been practising: 'The facilitator legitimized what I was doing. Now I was very comfortable with issues to do with students reflecting, having journals, and importance of writing.' Quinn (2012:24) points out that academic staff development programmes provide 'disruptive spaces' in which the lecturers interrogate their identities and begin to develop a shared sense of the academic project. Quinn (2012:1) applies the term 'disruption' in the sense of lecturers adopting a stance of questioning, challenging and critiquing taken-for-granted ways of doing things in higher education'. In addition, for some lecturers, the programmes affirm their current practices as legitimate.

Some lecturers had used a student- centered approach but they were not sure about its effectiveness. Mij, for example, reported how learning in formal settings assured him of how adults learn: 'I had always been wondering and kind of trying to tentatively use

student-centered approach to teach adults until PCAP which gave me an assurance that yaah, it looks like adults learn the same way'.

Likewise for Jos, learning to teach in formal settings assured him of the similarity between children's and adults' learning, as both need to be engaged in learning activities:

> When we did PCAP, it built on my training as a primary school teacher. At primary level, students- centered approach is emphasized a lot since you are teaching young children whose attention span is very short. You have to involve them in the learning activities otherwise they will lose interest. So I never thought I could use the same ideas with adults. (Jos)

Learning in formal settings affirmed lecturers' current practices. The understanding by lecturers that what they had been doing was legitimate was rewarding and it made them bolder and confident in their practices as it was 'a source of encouragement to continue with the effort'. The affirmation of current practices provided a sense of satisfaction, what Cilliers and Herman (2010) refer to as 'a feel good' reaction. However, the affirmation seemed to be more than a 'feel good' reaction. The spaces created by the learning provision made lecturers rethink their taken-for granted beliefs about adult learning and their values (Quinn, 2012). Cilliers and Herman (2010) list a number of 'feel good' reactions by the participants but affirmation of the participants' current practice is not included. Affirmation as analyzed above could be included in Kickpatrick's (1998) framework of evaluating training at the level of immediate reaction by participants.

The affirmation occurred when the lecturers attended academic staff development programmes, through the lecturers' interactions with the facilitators and colleagues. The interactions made them realize that the practices were the norm as they were being practised in other parts of the world. Kahe pointed this out:

> Then came PCAP, at least PCAP changed students' learning a lot. Let me say it just confirmed what I had been thinking of and even the literature that I read, I realized that and even outside there are people who really believe on making

> students' learning better and they are working on it and changing students' learning for the better. (Kahe)

Professionals are likely to learn through normative isomorphism. According to Powell and DiMaggio (1991:5), isomorphism is 'a constraining process that forces one unit in a population to resemble other units that face the same set of environmental conditions. Some lecturers realized that their current practices were legitimate as some of the things that they were practising were the norm. They were in line with what lecturers in other parts of the world were doing.

5.4 Personal and professional growth

Although most respondents learned how to engage students in their learning so that the students could experience learning, some were transforming their students, but in the process were transforming themselves and their abilities to act in the professional settings. Archer (1995:253) points out that it is 'equally important to recognize that the self-same sequence by which agency brings about social and cultural transformation is simultaneously responsible for the systematic transforming of social agency itself.'

After attending sessions in the formal settings, twenty-three (92%) of lecturers felt that the learning had played a role in their personal and professional growth. A comment from Bor illustrated how his identity had changed:

> I used to be a traditional lecturer who goes and reads or just teaches the notes; how I understand them... But after ASDP, my teaching definitely became better. I engaged students more in their learning. (Bor)

ASDP seemed to have transformed Bor from an éxpert' to a facilitator.

At a personal level, more than five respondents reported how they had changed in terms of being confident, bold or daring and more open to colleagues and students.

A comment from Sey demonstrated her boldness:

> Before PCAP and other programmes I have attended, I never used to do that because I felt like, if I asked somebody to help me I was exposing my weakness. Now it is different, I am ready to learn from other people. I am willing to have people help me. (Sey)

Another comment from Neth, for example, implied that the session on peer review facilitated by a local facilitator bolstered her confidence and willingness to expose her weakness to colleagues:

> The facilitator, during the Certificate in Lectureship, was dealing with peer review. For some reason the way she explained, I felt a bit more confident about letting somebody come to my class and give me a review. (Neth)

A comment from Theo showed that he was now more open to students' ideas:

> I liked the TED talk that Dr Robinson gave last time. It was on allowing students to think. The TED talk helped me in allowing students to speak freely in class on issues that we discuss. Before I was the one who would say something and they wouldn't challenge me. Now I have classes where the students challenge me. It is good for us to agree or disagree on certain things. I am now not very much strict to the point that I cannot allow another idea. (Theo)

From the comments, the facilitator's ability to demystify the peer review exercise enabled the lecturer to invite a colleague to her class. Most lecturers consider teaching a private affair. To make it public by inviting colleagues to their classes or being open to students' ideas, the approach that the facilitators use needs to be interesting and stimulating for lecturers to implement what they learn. The lecturers also require the assurance to let go of the expert role.

Some respondents as heads of departments, seemed to have influenced lecturers to grow professionally. A comment from Ane demonstrated how lecturers learned from each other through teaching observation at departmental level:

> We also have peer observations, that one I have encouraged for the whole department. We visit classes to let others see what we learnt in PCAP'. After PCAP, I also introduced mid-term feedback not only to my class but to the department; that is a requirement. (Ane)

Departmental Networks are crucial in lecturers' personal and professional growth. The above respondents seemed to have mutually engaged colleagues at departmental level and subject level, and with students in developing meaningful learning practices but in the process developed at a personal level. Rienties and Hosein (2015) note that lecturers find informal settings significant outlets as through significant networks and meaningful conversations they share their feelings, challenges, and frustrations about their teaching.

As evidence of their boldness and openness to work with others, some respondents sought the support of non-academic staff such as librarians to teach information literacy, and information technology personnel to provide support in technological matters in their subjects. The principle underpinning the collaboration with librarians was passed on during PCAP to the coordinators of PCAP from the participating universities. Mao, one of the respondents, who was also a coordinator, implemented it at her university: 'I am actually even asking my colleagues to come in, even librarians. No one thought that they could teach. It is something that I have introduced here.' Other respondents such as Jebu also sought the support of the librarians to teach information literacy as part of the coursework and Sey invited the technician to assist students, her co-facilitators when preparing for the practical classes: '…the students go to the studio and I introduce them to our technician. I do the training with our technician assisting.'

In the above cases, learning by the respondents from facilitators and colleagues tended to bring about change in their interpersonal relationships. They became more confident to work with academic staff who were not lecturers.

Further, a small number of respondents began to regard themselves differently. There was a shift in their identity of lecturer to that of 'expert' and/or capacity builder. A comment from Mao demonstrated that she had become an actor in the public domain, passing on her knowledge to other lecturers:

> I was called to be a keynote speaker at a teaching practice conference. I was a keynote speaker and there I talked about the use of a portfolio to assess students during teaching practice, something that I actually implemented here at the university. (Mao)

Mao felt valued at becoming known by the conference organizers. She had developed a social identity. She had moved from just being a lecturer in class to presenting a paper at a conference, a social event. Her social identity was that of a key-note speaker.

Some of the respondents' comments indicated that they facilitated lecturers' learning sessions as capacity builders, in other universities and their own. A comment from Jos, a respondent but also a facilitator, showed that he liked the fact that the CETL appreciated what he had learnt by allowing him to facilitate sessions in the academic staff development programmes:

> The quality assurance, the professor in charge of the center of learning and teaching, asked us to train other lecturers after PCAP. But from there on she has continuously asked us, because it is like yes, that is what we want. In that sense it kind of affirms to me that we seem to be up to something good. Every year I will have some input to train my colleagues. I continue using those ideas that we got from PCAP, it works very well. (Jos)

Two of the respondents not only trained lecturers in their university, but also did it in other universities. This created some openness, collegiality, collaboration and networking amongst the lecturers. A comment from Demu showed that he appreciated the fact that lecturers from 'rival' universities assisted in the training:

> We have the Learning and Teaching Services department trying to bring better teaching methods and I like the fact that we get these two professors from another

> university to facilitate the sessions that we hold. You see we can compete yes but if somebody in another university is doing it well, we can borrow it from him/her. (Demu)

Work experience in industry also constituted a form of professional learning, and in the process, encouraged professional learning. Industry experience of two of the respondents enabled them to grow at both personal and professional level. A comment from Demu indicated that the industry experience had changed his teaching approach and the way he viewed his discipline.

> My teaching approach for example for the last three years, I have drawn a lot of experience from industry… Before I would give examples of what happens out there but now I talk about what I know we are doing…You see technology in my opinion is at the service of other disciplines, we are not programmers but we are in the business of saving lives. Our programming skills are changing the way healthcare is delivered. I never imagined I would work with the ministry of health. (Demu)

Learning as transformation, where it is successful, should lead to change, both at personal and social levels or local and global levels (Archer, 2007; Wenger, 1999). Lecturers' learning in both formal and informal settings resulted into transformative learning (Mezirow, 1991). The learning enabled lecturers to make meaning of their teaching practices as they were able to relate theory to practice and they also developed expert-like roles. The lecturers acquired a social identity in addition to their personal identity of being a lecturer.

Archer (2003: 257) differentiates the two identities as: 'social identity is only assumed in society while personal identity regulates the subject's relation with reality as a whole'. At the personal level they became bold, open and confident. At the social level, a number of respondents assumed various roles namely: expert-like roles, capacity-builders and consultancy other than just teaching. They became actors (Archer, 1995: 256). People acquire social identities from the way in which they personify the roles they choose to occupy (Archer, 1995). Lecturers in this study facilitated academic staff development

programmes, networked with others through conferences and did some consultancy in the industry in order to grow professionally. These experiences and actions made them socially significant in the eyes of colleagues and students. Archer (2003) maintains that it is only specific people who become actors. To achieve social identity, actors go beyond being particular persons that of personal identity. Social identity can only be achieved in the social order, unlike personal identity, which is achieved in the three orders of reality: natural, practical and social. Achieving social identity requires one's agency to mediate one's becoming an actor; hence the development of a human being to become an actor is mediated by his or her agency (Archer, 1995). The lecturers' agency as mediating factor is taken up further in chapter 7.

Not all lecturers are likely to become actors, especially those disposed towards melancholy. Learning in both formal and informal settings may expose lecturers to teaching and learning theory, and the safe and trustworthy networks at departmental and/ or discipline level respectively. This could also encourage such lecturers to be intentional in becoming actors.

Learning in formal settings seemed to have triggered the process of life-long learning in some respondents. Neth indicated that the learning provision enabled her to pursue other academic qualifications, namely doctorate research more smoothly:

> ASDP came at a very good time because I was already beginning to think about my Doctorate Research. It was connecting up with what I was already trying to do but it helped to give a bit more idea on the structure, bibliography and a sense of approaches that are being used in education globally which I found very relevant. (Neth)

Learning to teach in the formal settings may not just be about professional development. Lecturers are also likely to pursue academic qualifications in education since academic staff development programmes expose them to new knowledge, skills and values in the education field.

The data also demonstrated the power of group growth. Four (20%) of the respondents reported that learning in formal settings had facilitated the development of corporate agency (group growth). Whilst personal growth resulted from learning in both formal and informal settings, group growth seems to have emerged from learning in formal settings and was extended by learning in the informal settings. This was illustrated by a comment from Sey: 'There is this programme; PCAP that brought us together with other lecturers from different universities, I learned a lot from the other lecturers' experiences'. Although vested interests in a lecturer's position are similar, that is facilitating students' learning, lecturers from different universities are endowed with different material and ideational resources. The converging of lecturers from different universities, schools/department, disciplines and subjects to learn to teach is likely to meet the objectives of enhancing group growth.

Further, the respondents developed collective action through organized interest groups such as lunch-time discussion groups to discuss issues about teaching and learning. A comment from Sey illustrated the group's commitment:

> Our CETL's director has now organized, besides the monthly workshops, weekly forums where we pick a book every semester that we all read. Most of the books are on education. We meet for a short time; discuss what we have read from the book and how it applies to our learning situations, our students' learning and what we are learning from it. (Sey)

The respondents as a group played a role in providing a quorum for discussions and working as a team. Wenger (1999) refers to such groups, where there is a common need, as communities of practice (CoP). He states that in a CoP where participants jointly and mutually engage each other, a practice is likely to evolve.

Archer (1995, 257-264) has identified two types of agents; primary and corporate agents. Individuals as lecturers are primary agents. As primary agents, lecturers felt confident enough to invite colleagues in some of their classes. As corporate agents, they held book

discussions and were able to articulate issues related to teaching and learning. They also collaborated with other colleagues such as technicians and librarians to improve students' learning. This newly earned confidence encouraged them to learn further in the informal settings from colleagues as they became more accommodating. Archer (1995:259), argues that human beings as 'primary agents' are not likely to bring about socio-cultural change as they have no voice. They are not 'passive' per se but they tend to deliberately suspend their agential powers. Corporate agents on the other hand are 'active' individuals that have the capacity to mobilize resources and alter the context in which the primary agents operate. They bring about change when they generate emergent powers that lead to a reduction in the category of primary agents and an increase in the category of corporate agents as primary agents are either incorporated or transformed into corporate agents (Archer, 1995). The advantage of having corporate agents is that they shape the context of all actors and they also bring about change at the systemic level (Archer, 1995).

This study shows that learning in formal and informal settings transforms lecturers at a personal and professional level. The learning is about 'becoming' (Wenger, 1999). The lecturers became confident, bold, open and ready to share knowledge with colleagues and students after the training. This implies that learning is important as it exposes lecturers to new knowledge, skills and values that enable them to 'become'. In the formal settings they are exposed to aspects of research, that is, research methods, research areas, the research process and scholarship of teaching and learning. Furthermore, in formal settings lecturers are exposed to resources on teaching and learning which are useful in making them life-long learners.

This study also shows that when lecturers become actors then they are regarded differently by both their colleagues and students. Learning to teach exposes lecturers to resources that enable some of them to develop social identities. Although Archer (1999) states that only specific people develop a social identity, lecturers disposed towards not exercising their agency are likely to exercise and develop social identities in cases where they are exposed to other forms of learning such as learning in informal settings.

5.5 Summary

In this chapter, the analysis of data on the outcome of lecturers' learning to teach in both formal and informal settings has been presented. The outcomes include: applying a learner-centered approach, perceived effect on students' learning, affirmation of current practices and personal and professional growth.

Lecturers acquired knowledge and skills to design courses in a more structured manner. They planned in advance and with the students and facilitated students' participation. They also learned how to assess students in new, varied and more thoughtful ways and carried out formative course evaluation. All these formed the various steps that make up a learner-centered approach as per the analysis in this study. And the implementation of the various steps in the learner-centered approach tended to point to good teaching. Further, underlying the implementation of the various steps (good teaching) were values such as magnanimity, humility, love, honesty and hospitality.

The learning approaches that some lecturers applied, approaches such as case methodology and mentorship programmes enabled students' learning to go 'beyond passing examinations'. According to the lecturers the use of the above mentioned approaches enabled students to apply theory to work related problems, serve society and create jobs (self-employment).

Studies have shown that academic staff development programmes tend enable lecturers to interrogate their identities such as being 'experts and negotiate their facilitative roles in students' learning. Lecturers, being professionals tend to learn through normative isomorphism. This study shows that by learning in the formal settings, some lecturers affirm their current practices. Thus the programmes provide confirmatory spaces.

In this study, at a personal level, most lecturers became confident in trying out new ways of teaching. Whilst most developed the personal identity of a facilitator, a few exercised their agency, further, to develop a social identity. They created networks in the industry and colleagues in other institutions.

The study shows that to a small extent there was the growth of corporate agents. Growth of corporate agents which changes the learning environment in general was as a result of lecturers attending the academic staff development programmes (PCAP, ASDP and CRT), more so the lunch-time group discussions. The encouragement of the practice of peer support review such as teaching observation at departmental level to some extent also led to the growth of corporate agents.

In this chapter the outcome of lecturers' learning to teach have been analyzed and discussed. In the next chapter, the systemic conditions that led to the above outcome are analyzed and discussed under the following headings: the learning opportunities, the enablements and constraints in the formal and informal settings and the constraints that acted as prompts in lecturers' learning. However, lecturers also made a contribution towards their learning but in conjunction with the systemic conditions. Their contribution is analyzed and discussed in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 6

SYSTEMIC CONDITIONS INFLUENCING LEARNING TO TEACH

6.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the learning opportunities available to lecturers in both formal and informal settings and what enables their courses of action and constrains their concerns in both settings are analyzed and discussed. Lecturers are likely to find themselves in learning and teaching environments not of their making as the structural and cultural conditions pre-date people's actions (Archer, 1995). Therefore, the questions that the analysis of the data answers in this chapter are: What learning opportunities exist in both formal and informal settings? What enables and constrains lecturers' learning to teach in private universities in Kenya? What constraints function as prompts to lecturers to learn to teach in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya?

The systemic conditions that are discussed in this chapter are the structural and cultural factors that exist in both formal and informal settings. I have applied abductive reasoning in order to understand the existence of the objective structures and their make-up and explain how they generally enable and constrain rather than how they will enable and constrain. According to Bertilsson (2004), critical realists have adopted abduction as the link between (abstract) structure and (concrete) action. Patterns and structures are inferred because it is not easy to see them in concrete events and occurrences. In this chapter, analysis goes further to determine not just the systemic conditions (the actual) but the underlying mechanisms (the real), that is, the structural and cultural emergent properties that enabled and constrained lecturers' learning to teach in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya.

Retroduction is also applied. Retroduction, as stated in Chapter 4, is 'working backwards' or 'bottom up' in situations where there are causal effects (Sayer, 2010:107). In the previous chapter, I analyzed and discussed the outcome in lecturers' learning to teach. In this chapter and the next, I go back to analyze the processes that led to the outcome.

I will be working backwards from the outcome at T^4 to the causal effects at T^3 and T^2 and later on to prompts and/or conditions at T^1 as delineated in the structural, cultural and agency morphogenetic cycles as per the morphogenetic approach.

In this study I found it appropriate to analyze lecturers' learning to teach, mainly, in terms of location or settings that the learning takes place. This is one of the key difference between formal and informal learning delineated by Malcolm et al. (2003). As discussed in chapter 2, this study is based on the idea of 'analytical dualism', which implies the distinctness of culture and structure (the parts) and agency (the people) Archer (1995: 165). In this study, I considered the structural and cultural conditions in the formal and informal settings as the 'parts' and lecturers as the 'people'.

In this chapter, I first analyze the data on the state of the teaching profession in private universities because it has links to the structural and cultural conditions in the formal and informal settings. Thereafter, I analyze data and discuss the learning opportunities, enablements and constraints in lecturers' learning to teach in formal and informal settings, learning to teach in formal and informal settings as a virtuous cycle, and the prompts in the teaching and learning environment.

6.1 Learning to teach within formal settings

6.1.1 The state of the teaching profession

The data showed that most of the respondents, on being employed in universities, lacked opportunities to learn to teach. The state of the teaching profession in private higher education in Kenya was characterised by comments provided by more than five respondents. Bor and Luma mentioned that they would have preferred to gain some practical experience in the industry, before becoming lecturers, but that was not the case. Luma for example explained her perception of a lecturer as:

> Teaching never even crossed my mind, because I thought a lecturer should be someone who has gone through life, has experienced many things, only then will I have a right to stand and to tell people anything. (Luma)

Similarly, Bor stated that: 'I like sharing knowledge. I thought I would first accomplish myself in my practice and then teach from experience not just from reading books. This did not happen.' Some lecturers took up teaching jobs due to lack of jobs in the industry and/or the need to supplement income from part-time teaching. As much as some practical knowledge before joining the universities as a lecturer was necessary, lack of it compounded by lack of formal training in teaching was constraining to teaching well.

A comment from Tas indicated that by and large the respondents' core competencies were in different disciplines or disciplines other than teaching:

> For all intents and purposes, most of us are accidental teachers. It so happened that we are in the classroom but most of us were trained as accountants, finance managers, but not really to teach. (Tas)

Comments from four respondents indicated that lecturers were employed on the basis of academic qualifications, they lacked professional qualifications. Although an academic qualification is important in student learning, most universities inadequately or in some hardly prepare lecturers for the teaching job. Bor who at the time of the study was teaching in a public and a private university pointed out:

> Since I joined the public university, there has been no training for lecturers on how to teach or how to manage a class. So long as you have the necessary academic qualifications you are unleashed onto the students. (Bor)

And yet for some of the respondents, teaching was frustrating due to lack of the learning opportunities. A comment from Sey demonstrated her frustration as:

> In the initial days of my teaching I almost felt like quitting. Even with the passion and enthusiasm and everything. Funny enough those days, I felt like quitting we used to teach for only one and a half hours, twice a week. The one and a half

> hours was just too long for me because I was using what I knew best – lecturer-centered approach. I go to class, I am the one who knows everything the students know nothing. (Sey)

Lecturers' experience of learning as students in primary and secondary schools, and at the university also seemed insufficient for teaching purposes. A comment from Tas demonstrated lecturers' lack of capacity to teach:

> Since I had not been trained on how to teach, I taught in the same way some of my professors taught me. I terrorized my students, in fact after the first semester half of the class failed. I even went to the Vice- Chancellor's office to explain the results. I told him the students didn't know how to programme. (Tas)

The data shows that a lack of training before entering the university and then lack of opportunities in the universities to learn to teach and a lack of industry experience left some respondents inadequately prepared for the teaching job. And therefore a constraint to teaching well.

6.1.2 Formal provision to support learning to teach

In this study, the support for lecturers' learning to teach was provided at all the four universities which had an established center or department on teaching and learning with names such as: Learning and Teaching Services (LTS) Department; Center of Excellence in Teaching and Learning (CETL). The centers mainly targeted new lecturers for the 4-day, 1-week to 2-week workshops on teaching. However, one university offered the course over a period of one year. In all the universities, all lecturers were required to attend a one-day workshop, in the course of the year, where learning and teaching matters were addressed and/or presented.

From the comments of the directors of the learning and teaching centers and the available documents, the four universities had some form of academic staff development. The staff development programmes were in the form of workshops, seminars, short and long

courses most of which were conducted under the auspices of the DVC's Academic Affairs Office. The duration of the courses ranged from (i) ten- minutes to one-hour lunch time meetings to (ii) a few days workshops and seminars to (iii) short courses over a number of months to (iv) a one-year certificate course.

The specific programmes in the four universities were referred to as: Academic Staff Development Programme (ASDP), Effectiveness in Teaching Programme, Critical Reflective Thinking (CRT) and Lecturers' Induction Programme. The most popular topics addressed across the universities included: teaching philosophy, universities' values, constructive alignment, student-centered approaches, assessment and feedback, motivation and reflective practice. The data showed that all the respondents had attended a programme on academic staff development. Ten out of the 25 respondents had attended the Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PCAP).

6.1.3 Learning opportunities within formal settings

A number of the respondents' comments indicated that they found the programmes useful and that perceived their existence as examples of support. The first comment from Sey was: 'Luckily the institution where I teach has a Centre of Excellence in Teaching and Learning (CETL). It started offering training some time back.' While the second one from Romu was: 'But for me my greatest influence was in 2009 when the university organized a teaching training (ASDP). They taught us something about learner-centeredness. For me it was monumental.'

In the above comments, lecturers used strongly positive terms such as: "luckily," "my greatest influence," and "monumental." Thus the existence of support in terms of programmes and establishment of departments dedicated to lecturers' learning was a boost to lecturers' morale and was likely to change the way lecturers' teach.

It was reported that learning in formal settings equipped lecturers with frameworks such as Bloom's taxonomy, Biggs and Tang's Structure of Observed Learning Outcome (SOLO) and Moon's map of representation and constructive alignment on which to base their planning. The frameworks provided them with a language with which to communicate students' learning outcomes, activities and assessment as was indicated by Raka;

> Another thing I did after PCAP was I actually did a course outline where I included learning activities and even alignment of learning outcomes and activities. That is something I had not thought about before. I may have done alignment accidentally like with the business planning but it was not something intentional. (Raka)

The lecturers applied constructive alignment in their teaching. Young (2008) notes that having a frame of reference and a shared vocabulary are significant steps toward helping lecturers make their tacit understanding explicit. Learning about and subsequently applying the frameworks built lecturers' knowledge on academic practice and provided them with a language with which to talk to each other about students' learning. This is in line with Vorster and Quinn (2012:55) who note that learning to teach in formal settings enables lecturers to 'develop understanding, knowledge and practices' to design curricula and teach in ways that support access and success to a diverse student body.

In instances where lecturers apply constructive alignment in the drafting of intended learning outcomes (ILOs), lecturers tend to be reflective and learn in the process. Also by reflecting on the kind of assessment and the learning activities, lecturers are likely to develop appropriate learning outcomes. This affirms Light, Cox and Calkins' (2009:13) assertion that learning to teach in formal settings is a call to professionalism, that is, 'a call to new ways of thinking about teaching and learning with an aim of transforming it through continual professional reflection'.

In the formal settings, lecturers learned practically through the manner in which the workshops or programmes were facilitated. A comment from Jebu described the facilitation experience of the facilitation process as engaging: 'During PCAP, there was time for practice, time for discussion and perhaps the way the material was presented

was a lot more student-centered.' Jebu seemed to have been engaged in the learning: 'In this case, the student was me. It was so student-centered there was no way I couldn't learn.' The facilitation of the learning sessions also provided time for participants to engage in varied learning activities. Daw referreding to interactive learning, saying: 'The one-on-one discussion, I remember when it was being introduced to us by the facilitator during PCAP, he said you can discuss that the two of you and one person will report on what you learned from each other.'

From the above comments it would seem that the presentation of the learning materials and time allocated for engagement with the material provided respondents with learning opportunities. By the time of the study they were actually applying what they experienced during the sessions in their teaching. Daw's observes: 'I realised it's a very good way of students' learning' (in this study the pairing was observed during the class observation), and Nep stated that: 'I have since emulated some few things.' The respondents seemed to have experienced learning, observed reflectively, conceptualized ideas, but most importantly, applied what they had learnt.

Facilitators seemed to have provided respondents with a model on how to facilitate students' participation. Since the sessions were based on a learner-centered approach, lecturers developed skills and the confidence to apply the skills in their teaching. The learner-centered approach that most of them practised after attending these sessions, albeit in steps, entailed the following stages; planning, facilitation, assessment and feedback and course evaluation (see Section 5.1).

Pollard (2010) notes that describing teaching as an art, craft and science helps us understand how teaching is about: 'collectively created knowledge, professional skills and personal capacities grounded in ethical principles and moral commitment' (Pollard, 2010:5). The facilitation of student participation was about working collectively with students to make their learning interesting, relevant, practical, collaborative and engaging. Lecturers' learning in formal settings is important as facilitation of students' participation is more than a technique, it is a science, an art and a craft.

Lecturers acquired new knowledge and skills in the formal settings that enabled them to change their core competencies and continually expand the breadth and depth of their teaching practices. A comment from Rau indicates that he had been improving his teaching methodology from the time he first attended ASDP:

> The most important thing I learnt from the ASDP is that as a lecturer there are things I can do outside the classroom and there are things I have to do within the classroom situation. So that has been very important for me; what can be done in class and what can be done outside. And he said the things that are not very interesting should be left to be done outside the class and the things that are interesting should be done within the classroom. So from ASDP, at least that one I know it is a very important concept. That helped me grow. I implement on that – I have been implementing on that – so I started with quizzes… moved on to use of pictures…, then writing of passages that depict the Kenyan context. (Rau)

In this study, a number of lecturers reported being able to rethink key ideas, practices, and values in order to change what they were doing. Learning new ideas in formal settings moved lecturers from being routine to becoming more innovative. They also became confident in applying what they learnt. A comment from Jebu shows that learning in the formal settings made her confident to engage students in activities that further led to her learning:

> Recently I asked students to write me a portfolio…After two months they delivered wonderful portfolios. From these portfolios, even the fact that they delivered I learnt a lot of things. (Jebu)

In formal settings, lecturers learned about teaching and learning theory. They were introduced to the scholarship of teaching and learning. They learned that there was so much literature on teaching and learning in higher education: ‘Maybe I should mention ASDP again, because for the first time, I naively got to learn that there is so much that is written about teaching and learning in higher education (Jebu)’.

Exposure to teaching and learning theories and resources was to enable lecturers to research on various aspects of their teaching and students learning in line with Light and Calkins (2008) who note that SOTL is an inquiry into some or the entire act of teaching. Teaching becomes a science in instances where the decisions that lecturers make about teaching and their students' learning are research-based (Pollard, 2010).

In this study, a small number of lecturers reported on what could be regarded as the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL). Learning to teach in formal settings provided lecturers with the opportunity to practice SoTL: 'After PCAP, I started doing my own research, borrowing books from that center and reading and then I started experimenting… (Sey).'

Another comment from Jebu indicates that ASDP had introduced her to SoTL:

> I had not exposed myself to reading anything to do with readings in higher education. …Every time I read something I keep saying to myself, 'How could I not know this?' But how can you know when you have not been exposed to it? Learning from external material, you have to know what is going on, you have to know what the current trends are. Right now I am very proud to say that I am now reading a journal, this is a journal that is barely a year old, about teaching of communication especially writing across the curricula in higher education… A colleague and I have co-written a paper, we have collaborated in that way. (Jebu)

To make transparent how learning is made possible, lecturers need to go beyond scholarly teaching and engage in the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL). Trigwell, Martin, Benjamin and Prosser (2000:157) note that SoTL involves 'a focus on using literature in an exploration of the teaching and learning environment of one's own teaching with the aim of improving teaching and student learning but communicating the information obtained to others'. Richlin (2001) differentiates scholarly teaching and SoTL the two in terms of purpose. Whilst scholarly teaching is about improving students'

learning, SoTL is about lecturers researching into their teaching and students' learning to create knowledge.

The fact that most of the lecturers in the four universities were not engaged in SoTL points to a limitation in the structure and/or organization in place on lecturers' learning in formal settings. A comment from Jos, who was a lecturer as well as a facilitator shows that work overload results in lack of time for consultation purposes:

> The workload is a constraint. As a lecturer facilitating the training, I need to go back to work and the lecturers too need to go back to work. So I forget about the lecturers I train. But if I was doing this job full-time, I know that in every semester I have a session, I would plan in such a way that we meet often to discuss teaching and learning issues, the challenges in teaching and work on them continuously. But the way we do it is like after this a whole year gone then we start thinking about this come the following year because it's not your full time job. If it were, you would be in to it. You would read all books about teaching and learning and get into research so you will always have new information to discuss with colleagues. (Jos)

Factors such as workload tend to interfere with lecturers' practice of SoTL and yet the notion of SoTL is to engage one into that 'inquiring, listening, absorbing and sharing role' (Mills & Huber, 2005:17). Furthermore, most lecturers are likely to carry out research in their disciplines than on the teaching and learning of their disciplines. According to Quinn (2012), lecturers tend to see no relationship between their disciplinary research and their teaching and yet SoTL bridges research and teaching and it is a lever of change (D'Andrea & Gosling, 2005).

Learning in formal settings acted as a stepping stone to institutional educational development in terms of developing advisory and consultative roles. After attending PCAP, for example, over time some of the participants acquired expert-like roles such as capacity builders and consultants. In this study, the directors of the CETLs tended to request lecturers who had been trained on aspects of teaching and learning in higher

education to facilitate sessions on learning to teach. Jos comments: 'The quality assurance, the professor in charge of the centre of learning and teaching, asked us to train other lecturers after PCAP'. Apart from building capacity from within to supplement what external facilitators offered, local facilitators were likely to complement the external facilitators' efforts by incorporating the local context as suggested by Hardy et al. (2010).

A further value derived from the formal opportunities was to become acquainted with the ethos of the universities. A comment from Luma illustrated how individual lecturers were able to learn about the universities' ethos and how they could align their ethos to the universities: 'Before I began teaching, I attended ASDP. When I attended ASDP, I was more interested in the Strathmore ethos – the philosophy, does it match my philosophy?' ASDP, PCAP and CRT inducted lecturers to the university's strategic intent, missions and teaching philosophies.

Summary

This section shows the learning provisions in the formal settings were of great significance to lecturers learning to teach. Firstly, the existence of support in terms of the ADPs provided lecturers with avenues they used to learn how to teach and improve students' learning.

Secondly, lecturers acquired knowledge and skills on how to design their courses and assess students in a more structured way. They learned the facilitative role from the way the facilitators modelled the lecturers' learning sessions and how to become reflective professionals.

Thirdly, the lecturers learning horizon increased as they were introduced to teaching and learning resources and theory. However, whereas a number of lecturers in this study practised scholarly teaching, a few of them carried out the scholarship of teaching and learning. This could have been due to lack of follow up and /or to heavy workload.

Fourthly, lecturers were introduced to educational development that led to their adopting advisory and consultative roles in addition to their facilitative roles. The knowledge lecturers acquired in the formal settings enabled them to become capacity builders and consultants. The academic development programmes brought about change and fostered the development of more complex experiences in lecturers (Ginn et al., 2008; Clegg, 2005).

Lastly, the ADPs acted as induction programmes. Lecturers were inducted into being innovative and efficient instead of routine teachers and a few were inducted into the scholarship of teaching and learning when they attended the ADPs. The ADPs also provided a forum for university management to disseminate to lecturers the university's strategic intent and other policy statements.

Learning from students' feedback, class observations and other learning opportunities in the informal settings may be necessary to deepen what lecturers learn in formal settings. In the next section I analyze the place of additional learning opportunities available to enhance learning to teach in the informal settings.

6.2 Learning to teach within informal settings

Learning in formal settings is restricted to specific locations and people (facilitator and participants). Eca commented that learning happens everywhere:

> 'Do you know that when I learnt and I continued to learn that I don't have to be an authority but there is so much to learn, anywhere I go to I go with several notebooks in my handbag because I see learning everywhere, in a matatu (taxis), I go to the market and I can spend my day there, I can find people speaking wisdom. I see people making sense … I realize that lessons are everywhere. (Eca)

Learning is continual and it does happen in both formal and informal settings. However people mainly associate learning with formal settings, in the informal settings 'they are just doing their work' (Eraut, 2004: 248). Learning in informal settings is not limited to a particular time and space, it involves learning from other people and learning from

personal experience. In the next sub-section the social interactions that lecturers learned from, what they learned and how they learned in the informal settings are discussed.

6.2.1 Learning opportunities within informal settings

Although there are immense learning opportunities in formal settings, informal settings provide more holistic learning opportunities. Jebu succinctly compared the learning opportunities in informal settings to segments of an orange:

> The full orange is how much you can learn. The little segments are the people who are contributing to that learning. And your contribution to the learning whether you are reading, whatever you are doing, is one little segment. But when you bring in students that adds to the segment, when you bring in external material, published articles, videos about teaching, that is another segment, you bring in an observer that is another segment, when you listen to other lecturers as well that is another segment and for me I think all these things have worked towards helping me learn how to teach better. (Jebu)

An orange suggests roundness or wholeness. Thus the metaphor implies that all the bits add up to a holistic learning experience. Although learning opportunities in the informal settings are numerous and are synonymous to the segments of an orange, as implied by Jebu, the individual's role (to be discussed later) is crucial in aggregating the segments.

Firstly, the work requirement demands by departments provided lecturers with learning opportunities. In situations where lecturers were required to collaboratively design their courses and observe classes, they tended to learn how to teach. A comment from Tas illustrated how lecturers supported each other at the beginning of each semester on preparing course material and how they subsequently learnt from their deliberations:

> In the executive education, we always say that we have to choose as much as possible a case that is not more than 10 pages. It is deliberate on our part. If a case is very long 20 pages the students will not have time to read. In the faculty

> meeting we hold at the beginning of each semester, we tell the lecturer of such a long case to explain how he/she going to handle that. So the lecturer now will reflect again. (Tas)

Another comment from Jebu demonstrated how as a subject group, they worked collaboratively in preparing the course outlines for subjects that were taught by a number of lecturers to students of the same year in a semester:

> We also work together under a subject leader on our units. For example, when you have common intended learning outcomes, it is easy to work towards them whatever styles of teaching you have….(Jebu)

Similarly, Rau indicated that they learnt from each other's course outlines and collaboratively decided on how to teach the topics:

> We compare the course outline; we work on course outlines more or less together. We send the course outline to each other and comment on activities. There is also the issue of the topics, which topics we feel should be given more emphasis. Fortunately, my colleague, teaching the same subject, sits next to me in the staffroom so we are able to easily interact. I know I have borrowed material from my colleagues. We ask each other, how did you handle this? Could I use this material? There was a time we shared the password of our e-learning site with all our students. (Rau)

The above cases are illustrative of how informal settings provided collaborative space where lecturers designed courses with colleagues. Through the collaborations on designing courses, lecturers learn as they reflect and align learning activities and assessment to the ILOs. The collaborations enable them to learn given that often due to pressures of time, lecturers give less time and consideration to preparing courses thoughtfully than implementing and assessing the learning process (D'Andrea & Gosling, 2005). According to Rienties and Hosein (2015), lecturers find informal settings significant outlets as through significant networks and meaningful conversations, with colleagues,

they share their feelings, challenges, and frustrations about their teaching. Moreover, lecturers tend to relate to colleagues with whom they trust and therefore feel safe.

From peer support review, mainly through teaching observation, most respondents learned some practical ideas about teaching. A comment from Bor showed that as an observer he learned about students' engagement: 'The class I went to, a few students were participating while others were just spectators. I learned something on how to engage students and we shared.' Kal learned from the peer observer's feedback about course delivery: 'One of the observers told me, the way the class ended, it was open-ended. It just ended like that. Of course I learnt from that. So that is one thing, after every class I try to recap.'

A comment from Gel showed how she learned from a guest lecturer about delivery of the subject content and motivation of students.

> When I invited Mr. X in my class I learnt a lot. He is a very good business man and good at case study methodology... As a lecturer I learned his way of delivery. He has got high energy which I think I can't compete. (Gel)

Peer support review in some instances assisted the respondents to learn by comparing the practice of the observed (strengths and weaknesses) with theirs:

> When it comes to teaching observation, as you observe your peer teaching, you see the strengths and see how to change your classes to make them as interesting like what you saw. There are also some weaknesses that you may have seen that you also share. (Dref)

From teaching observation one respondent learned more about the role of a facilitator. A comment from Rau illustrated that what he learned from the observer's feedback was engaging students in their learning without abdicating the lecturer's role:

> Peer observation, I've been able to do a bit of it and got good feedback, yes most of the things were good, although there was something that came out. The activity we were doing in one of the observations was pretty difficult and I also reflected on that. At one point, I thought that maybe I need to simplify it a little bit. Move step by step and ensure that the students have mastered this concept before they move to this other one. As opposed to learner centered 100% where the students are told, 'sit there work, that is the document and the activity, present the results.' Instead more guidance is needed and that came from that peer observation. (Rau)

Teaching observation also provided learning opportunities to the respondents that were observed. It enabled the observed to learn about their strengths and weaknesses. Jos, for example commented that the observer pointed out his strengths and weaknesses, but some of the things were so normal to him that he had never envisioned them to be strengths:

> He liked my humor, he said that is a resource, I wish I could be able to do some of the things you do, the jokes you make, some of the things you say and students laugh. I think I had never looked at it like that as something I can focus on. I would just talk and people just laugh. I had never looked at it like as strength until after that peer review. (Jos)

In other teaching observations, the respondents tended to see themselves in the lecturers they observed. A comment from Jos showed that he learnt more about his teaching from the observation:

> …I learnt from there that I do that sometimes, I get caught up in there in accomplishing and forget just to be there and relax, just to be there enjoy myself. Teaching is not a performance because I think that also got in the way because he was trying to show me what he can do. There was a kind of this is a performance but teaching is a relationship. I cannot rush through it in the name of delivering content, which is what I got. (Jos)

The learning opportunities in the aforementioned comments were supportive in terms of

providing lecturers with practical ideas on: students' engagement, participation and motivation; course delivery (recap of the lesson) and aspects of the subject content. Fullerton (2003) asserts that teaching observation benefits both the observed and the observer in terms of: insight into what helps learners to learn, what happens in effective teaching sessions, feedback on individual teaching skills, style and discussion, collaboration and exchange of ideas.

Lecturers involved in class observations learnt from their peers the hidden part about themselves (Johari Window, 1955). By inviting peers into their classes, the lecturers made their teaching public, allowing both the observed and the observer to learn more about students' learning and their teaching through open conversations and sharing of information (Tapscott & Williams, 2008). They supported peers to learn effectively. This was in line with what Austin, Sweet and Overholt (1991:215) describe as reward of teaching observation 'to see ourselves as others see us'. Further, Harris and Muijs (2005) note that full participation and therefore learning to teach will not occur where lecturers work individually but where they collaborate and learn from each other's experiences through synergy. Thus informal settings provided lecturers with space to engage purposefully with colleagues.

Changes in work demand requirements such as designing of courses and observing other lecturers' classes assisted the respondents' access to and the learning of knowledge that was neither explicit nor able to be directly experienced through everyday activities. Billet and Shoy (2012) note that changes in the requirements of work are likely to force workers to learn.

Class observation as a practice could also be considered as a process where lecturers, in this study, all lecturers and not necessarily new lecturers gained legitimate access from the peripheral to full participation. Lave and Wenger (1991) look at legitimate peripheral participation (LPP), as a structure that propels new-comers into a mature practice assisted by old-timers. The old-timers provide access to newcomers through mutual engagement, negotiation of enterprise and access to the repertoire in use (Wenger 1999: 100). Wenger notes that for one to continually learn, newcomers must be granted enough legitimacy by old timers to be potential full members.

However, Fuller et al. (2005), found the attempt by Lave and Wenger (1991) to stretch LPP to cover all workplace learning unconvincing. Kal commenting on feedback after a teaching observation showed that lack of experienced lecturers was constraining: '...I never really got hard distinct comments as such. I tend to be critical on myself so I thought they should have said something more but they didn't'. Another comment from Neth demonstrated interpersonal problems that may exist in teaching observation: 'I guess I found it difficult to be told by the person who I find difficult to deal with, to tell me about one of my weaknesses in teaching. Unfortunately after that I put a barrier internally to the whole issue of peer review in teaching'. Such constraints were likely to work against lecturers' legitimacy to full participation. Romu demonstrated that she preferred someone who was not an 'expert' to be the observer: 'I do not know whether peer reviewing can be done through a camera that comes on when you do know…Maybe I would be more relaxed if I had a 'younger' lecturer.'

Caution is required in the use of practices such as teaching observation. Firstly, whereas, some lecturers prefer éxperts' as observer, other lecturers prefer colleagues who are their peers. Teaching observation also tends to touch on people's feelings.

Secondly, collaboration between lecturers and students also provided lecturers with learning opportunities. Whereas learning to teach in the formal settings was initiated and facilitated by someone else, in the informal settings, lecturers had to initiate their own learning by being democratic, keen and interested in students' learning so as to learn from students. The lecturers had to be *open* to students' feedback. A comment from Romu indicated the need to have an open mind so as to learn from students' feedback:

> One student who told me I talk too fast. The positives are normally a lot but the negative points are really, really very helpful. I just learn to sort of take them in stride. Basically that is how I have learned. (Romu)

The lecturers also had to be open to students' comments, questions and suggestions to relate what they had learned in the formal settings to the occurrences in the informal settings.

> I like the students' perspective, where you give them a course outline then you feel I have fulfilled a faculty mandate; here is the course outline, don't ask me questions. Then students ask you, look it is okay the way you have taught but let us look at the learning outcomes. Then you realize these are global learners, they are looking at all the things you have said in an objective manner. (Demu)

Lecturers who are keen on, and open to students' comments, questions and suggestions are responsive to a wide range of ideas and influences and learn in the process (Bryans & Smith, 2000). However, they need to create suitable conditions in which students can give feedback. Lecturers who apply the learner-centered approach as discussed in Chapter 5, are likely to learn from students.

Some lecturers experienced transformative learning when they collaborated with students in research and by working in the industry. Lecturers were able to create new knowledge rather than manage what is known. A comment from Nep illustrated how he collaborated with students in collecting data and sharing results in his discipline:

> I can talk with confidence that if I never collaborated, I would just be talking like I used to before. 'I will start next year.' When I went to a medical research centre we formed a research team with graduate students and some scientists… We formed a team. We shared the experiences and with time I understood the science and they sharpened the writing. (Nep)

When lecturers collaborate with students they create an atmosphere of shared responsibility (Razak, Jaafar & Harnidon, 2015). The inclusion of students, for example, in research being carried out by a lecturer is likely to create an atmosphere where all people feel valued and respected. This creates a synergy effect with the team like the one experienced by Nep and the students.

Thirdly, participants also indicated that through participating in real life situations, in the industry, they gained practical experience which they translated into their teaching. According to Jos, having sessions on radio and television, with a limited duration per session, enhanced his learning. He learnt about time management:

> I would say it enhances my preparation and also getting to the point when I am teaching, not going round and round in circles telling so many stories. Tell a bit of the stories but get to the point, the time is limited. Even in class, it might appear more because I have 1.40 hours compared to the 10 minutes I get on radio. I make good use of this time so that I get to the point. (Jos)

Comments from Tas demonstrated how working in the corporate world assisted him in relating to his students, who were mainly postgraduate students. His one-year working experience in the industry informed him of what goes on in the boardrooms:

> Before, I was teaching from a perspective of an outsider based on what people have told me. So when I worked in the industry, I experienced it myself as a Chief Information Officer how to communicate with my Chief Executive Officer, how to make a presentation to the Board and how do you educate the Board?...So when I finally finished my one-year stint in the industry, it complemented my research and writing of cases with first-hand experience plus my readings put them together; just imagine the kind of lecturer that I am in the classroom! (Tas)

Working with industry also provided respondents with opportunities to learn from people other than students and colleagues. The consultancy exposed them to other areas of knowledge:

> The beauty of consultancy is that you are doing what you aren't doing every day. For example, when I'm given a training consultancy for diplomats… Their contribution and what they tell me about their challenges in their field, language and culture issues they encounter when they are out there I learn a great deal from them; people who are not in the teaching area like myself. (Dref)

Another comment from Dref illustrated how meeting other people had an effect on him as a lecturer: 'the good thing about consultancy is that it is a backwash experience; you do one thing and it's also changing you.'

Fourthly, informal settings provided space where lecturers could make judgments that were either intuitive or explicit. Teaching and learning environments tend to be complex and dynamic and at times require lecturers to be responsive. A comment from Gel showed how a student's suggestion made her aware of how she presented the course content:

> One student told me that I should not be standing in one spot all the time as some students in some part of the class felt left out. So I kept that in my mind. Whenever I talk I make sure I face all students. (Gel)

In the formal settings, lecturers acquired skills and knowledge but such knowledge has to be internalized in the informal settings. Whilst representations may not be clear when lecturers learn in formal settings, course delivery methods like the position to take as lecturer when addressing students in class, become clearer through authentic activity; 'the ordinary practices of the culture' (Brown et al., 1989:34). Thus learning in informal settings is crucial as it takes its focus on the relationship between learning and the social situation in which it occurs, that is, in authentic activity, culture and context (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Learning in such environments where lecturers have to respond effectively to the unpredictable happenings in class becomes necessary. Fox et al. (2009) acknowledge that learning happens through the constant adjustment and modification of practice in response to the actions, reactions, interactions and activities in the classroom and in anticipation of an approaching situation.

Fifthly, informal settings provided lecturers with time and space to reflect on students' learning, responses, results, comments, actions and reactions and feedback from the students. Reflection is a vital element in any form of learning. A comment from Dia illustrated how she reflected on students' learning through the questions they asked, learning in the process:

> So from the questions they ask and how they ask the questions I am able to tell on how I can improve on explaining concepts in class. And maybe, how to ensure that they are able to understand better in class so as to reduce the number of questions we have during the round table. (Dia)

The lecturers also learned by reflecting on a number of aspects during class observations. They reflected on their own weaknesses and strengths and those of their colleagues as indicated by Jos:

> …I learnt from there that I do that sometimes, I get caught up in there in accomplishing and forget just to be there and relax, just to be there enjoy myself. Teaching is not a performance… but a relationship. (Jos)

In informal settings, lecturers learned from students and colleagues by reflecting on the students' questions and the teaching process. These may be illustrations of Schön's (1991) reflection in-action which occurs in association with action and guides the process of action via knowledge in use. Through class observations, for example, lecturers were able to relate what was happening to what they do, that is learning by reflecting on their own experiences (Boud et al., 1985). Through reflection in-action lecturers are able to describe their own intuitive understanding. Jos, for example, was able to describe teaching as a relationship and not a performance.

Lastly, the findings revealed that some lecturers only came to understand what had been taught in the academic staff development programmes much later in the informal settings. A comment from Gel indicated that she was only able to apply constructive alignment much later in her teaching even after learning about it, earlier on, in a number of academic staff development programmes:

> We had another ASDP... That one was very clear. The issue of alignment *now hit me*. Let me say in those three years, because I have now taught for four years, now by the third year, it now hit me that it is not just having teaching or learning outcomes, there has to be alignment even when it comes to the CATs and Exams now and therefore the activities... That made such a difference for me. That was the technical part. (Gel)

Learning in informal settings provided lecturers with enough time to change their conception about teaching, a prerequisite to change in teaching practice as pointed out by Trigwell and Ashwin (1996). According to McAlpine et al. (2009), taking account of

students' learning occurs much later in the lecturers' development hence the need for lecturers to continue learning in the informal settings.

6.2.2 Summary

Learning and teaching issues are complex and are effectively performed in instances where lecturers directly exploit the learning opportunities in their environment. This study shows that informal settings provided learning opportunities in addition to the ones in the formal settings. Whereas in the formal settings the learning was solely planned and/or initiated by an academic developer, in the informal settings the learning was mainly initiated by the individual lecturer, but mostly by lecturers who learnt about teaching in the formal settings.

Work demand requirements such as class observations and designing of courses provided lecturers with learning opportunities. Collaborations with students and colleagues, working in the industry and consultancy work also provided lecturers with more learning opportunities. Lecturers learned from their day-to-day interactions with students. The students' expectations, learning activities, reactions and actions and feedback on course evaluation provided a learning curriculum. All this tended towards transformative learning. The lecturers deepened their knowledge instead of only increasing it.

Learning in informal settings provided lecturers with space and time to internalize and practice the theoretical ideas and concepts learnt in formal settings. Learning to teach in informal settings gave meaning and purpose to what was learnt in formal settings. The learning environments in the informal settings provided learning opportunities in terms of: learning curriculum, qualitative learning and space to make judgments and reflect, collaborate and be collegial. The context and social engagements informal settings provided were appropriate for lecturers' learning to take place. Some lecturers became reflective professionals as the opportunities and ability to learn developed in close relation to the ability to perform tasks.

Formal and informal settings provide lecturers with learning opportunities in a virtuous cycle

6.3. Enablements and constraints in the formal settings

In this study, factors that enabled and constrained lecturers' learning to teach in the formal settings include: the funding of programmes and establishment of centres or departments on teaching and learning, other resources the facilitation and design of the programmes and management support and lack of it.

6.3.1. Funding

With regard to programmes such as PCAP, ASDP and CRT that lecturers in this study found valuable, there needs to be prior conditions. The funding of the programmes and the teaching and learning centres was a prior condition. It was followed by deeper underlying causal powers such as the organization of the programme in terms of facilitation and design of the programmes and then the active participation and sharing of experiences among the participants that enabled lecturers to learn to teach. The funding of PCAP, for instance, enabled lecturers from different universities to converge in one university, as illustrated by Sey: 'There is this program, PCAP that brought us together with other people from different universities. I learnt a lot from them, from their experiences.'

At institutional level, the setting up and funding of centres on learning and teaching enabled the directors to hold workshops, seminars and lunch- time book discussions which brought together lecturers of different departments and disciplines. Sey noted that the lunch-time book discussions organized by the CETL were valuable:

> CETL, besides the monthly workshops, now organizes weekly forums where we pick a book every semester that we all read. Most of the books are on education. We meet for a short time; discuss what we read from the book and how it applies

> to our learning situations and our students and what we are learning from them. I have really benefited from that. (Sey)

Establishment of centres or departments on learning and teaching contributed to creating enabling conditions for lecturers to learn to teach. The funding of centres and departments is important in lecturers' learning to teach. Leibowitz (2014) note that while in some institutions of higher education having such material resources is taken for granted, in a number of universities in Kenya and elsewhere in Africa, resources to improve learning and teaching are rarely budgeted for and therefore constraining. Thus establishment and funding of CETLs and the programmes offered in the four universities, enabled lecturers to transform from primary to corporate agents. And lecturers as corporate agents were likely to transform the situations that lecturers as primary agents operated in and create what Lave and Wenger (1991: 36) refers to as a 'mature practice'.

6.3.2 Other resources

Resources other than the funding of the programmes and establishment of centres or departments on teaching and learning, made available by university management were also enabling. A comment from Jos indicated that management provided lecturers with resources such as time to attend the ADPs, and books and journals on teaching and learning:

> During the PCAP program management gave us time out. This showed a lot of support. They also made available the books that were needed for the session. They also give us some kind of recognition by asking us to train other lecturers of different calibres. They also make available resources that we need for our research. In that sense, yes the university does enable me to do it. (Jos)

Amundsen and Wilson's (2012) review shows that more is known about the initiatives' design, in terms of effectiveness, but not how learning is actualized and embedded in workplaces. Making resources, such as books on teaching and learning, available could be one way of embedding life-long learning in workplaces as some lecturers were likely to read them and apply the theory in their teaching. Kahn's et al. (2008) findings show

that when lecturers are exposed to resources they engage in and become aware or understand aspects of practice more deeply as exposure to teaching and learning resources enhances lecturers' capacity for practice. However, in this study, resources such as books and journals were mainly used by a few lecturers with strong individual drive to continue learning to teach.

A strategy employed by one of the CETLs where lecturers held formal book discussions over lunchtime was likely to enable more lecturers learn about teaching and learning. Such discussions allowed people to examine discourses and their assumptions and come to new understandings. Archer (1995; 264) attributes structural change to the re-grouping as it is a requirement for group growth or corporate agency.

6.3.3 Design of courses and facilitation of the programmes

From the positive comments made by lecturers about programmes such as Certificate of Lectureship, PCAP, CRT and ASDP, it can be argued that the way the courses were designed made it possible for the lecturers to reflectively learn from the facilitators and other participants. The facilitation was in depth and was modeled on lecturers' teaching. The participants were also actively engaged as described by Nep:

> One challenge I got from the facilitator was that he was able to deliver alone the whole day. Nobody ever dozed, he knew how to engage, disengage and when to break out. …Make the classroom experience a life experience. (Nep)

The way the programmes were organized, in terms of the facilitation and the design, enabled lecturers to be more aware of and more committed to students' learning.

In some of the programmes, lecturers were expected to maintain reflective journals as part of the programmes' curricula. A comment by Raka showed how she reflected as she drafted the reflective journal:

> In terms of documenting my reflective thoughts, during PCAP when we did the reflective portfolio, it was the first time that I actually consciously sort of thought about my reflection and documented it and sort of reflected on my reflection so to

> speak, now it is written down. I reflected on my teaching philosophy and wrote something. I had never thought about it in the way we developed it. (Raka)

The writing of a reflective journal enabled critical self-inquiry as in the process of writing the lecturers 'consciously thought about their reflection and documented it and sort of reflected on their reflection' (Raka). Learning about teaching portfolios and reflective journals enabled lecturers to develop the capacity to critically reflect on their teaching and improved their self-awareness through documentation. Moon (2009:187) notes that a journal is predominantly written material that is based on reflection and is relatively free writing, though it may be written with a given structure as was the case in, PCAP. It is written regularly over a period of time and it provides a means by which learning can be upgraded-'where unconnected areas of meaning cohere and deeper meaning emerges'. According to Vorster and Quinn (2012:57), reflective practice in the formal settings encourages participants 'to critically interrogate their dual roles of knowledge producer and teacher'. The engagement with the writing of reflective journal and or a teaching philosophy creates space for lecturers to be 'cultural producers' (Belluigi, 2012:139). The space enabled lecturers to reflect and make explicit, through documentation, their teaching practices that were supported by practical evidence and theory.

Another important aspect that emerged in the facilitation and design of the programmes was the discursive engagements between lecturers within and between disciplines. In formal settings when lecturers shared experiences, analyzed concepts and discussed the different methodologies that they implemented during their classes, lecturers were drawn by fellow participants to consider new perspectives. The interactions between them tended to shape the concerns they held. A comment from Dia indicated that she considered using the e-learning platform after attending sessions in ASDP and interacting with other lecturers:

> I think now in 2010 I attended the first ASDP, the one for June and I think during the same year I attended the one for 3 months; the short course. That helped a lot at least from the ASDP in 2010 I was able to know about the eLearning and during the short course I actually got to start using it after interacting with lecturers who

> were using it because I never used to use e-learning at all. Even I used to wonder how it fits in our school. (Jebu)

Lecturers are likely to try out new ways of teaching when they get to know that others are using them successfully. The interaction with lecturers who are using a particular teaching approach provides the impetus to other lecturers to try it out. The space, in the ADPs where lecturers could 'dialogue not necessarily in new thinking but thinking again and thinking about students' learning' (Southwood, 2012:89) was enabling.

The practice of lecturers learning within and across disciplines showed that the discursive engagements is an important structural emergent power that enabled lecturers learn how to teach. During the sessions when lecturers shared their experiences, they learned by comparing and reflecting on the experiences. A comment from Dia showed how the discursive engagements across disciplines, provided some suggestions on how to handle class management problems:

> When other lecturers talk you are able to relate I encountered that in classes and the way they talk about it you can get some sort of suggestion on how to handle the problems you been having in class. All these issues of attendance and group sessions in the afternoons when you talk about them you realize that other lecturers also experience them and you listen to what they did in class. Like the way the law lecturer was talking about the kind of group work that she uses for her law class. We were able to see the way students are so dedicated to that group work because they know when they miss there is a problem. So from ASDP, the talks and sessions at least you are able to learn something that can assist in actually teaching the class. (Dia)

The space for dialogue in the formal settings was rather enabling as dialogue is about 'communicative give and take'(Paquette et al., 2015). The wide range of lecturers in terms of discipline, maturity and experience offered a diverse and rich environment for engagement. Participants were able to relate some of their class experiences to what was discussed. Although Lewis and Usher (2016) note that people have their own occupational and ideational foundation, lecturers from different disciplines are likely to

agree on one thing, that teaching that leads to epistemological access and success for students is important and their discursive engagements are likely to result into transformative learning.

Moreover, the ADPs act as 'trading zones' where lecturers within and across disciplines have space not only for social connections but also for productive work in a collaborative fashion' (Lewis & Usher, 2016:9). Although it is crucial, in the ADPs, that the academic developers recognize disciplinary differences as the disciplinary needs are unique, it is important to bring together lecturers of different disciplines. This enables lecturers to talk with each other exchanging and borrowing ideas, in essence they 'trade' ideas within and across disciplines (Mills & Huber 2005). The diversity in ideas is likely to enrich the discussions and enable lecturers appreciate a programme whose content includes the use of technology, for example. D'Andrea and Gosling (2005) suggest that social groups that bring about transformation are those that work across and between disciplines. Wenger (98:234) concurs by stating that that people need to have access to other practices to grow.

Furthermore, it is through dialogic engagement that the capacity of critical reflection on academic practice can be achieved. Southwood (2012:92) notes that by 'opening up spaces of dialogue, ways of thinking may be disrupted and re-negotiated, ideas can be deliberated and understanding can be developed' as lecturers compare and contrast the challenges they face in teaching. Through dialogic engagement the participants make meaning, confirm and critique some of their teaching practices. Spaces for discourse are considered important as lecturers 'make meaning' instead of just 'making sense' what Jebu expressed as 'sometimes that talking to a colleague is what makes a bulb to tick or some switch to come on', which is likely to change them in deep profound and lasting ways (Mezirow, 1991; Moon, 2007). The changes that take place are the taken-for granted beliefs, unchallenged assumptions and habits of the mind never before questioned as it was the case in the drafting of the individual lecturer's teaching philosophy: '… I reflected on my teaching philosophy and wrote something. I had never thought about it in the way we developed it. (Raka)

Furthermore, during the discussions with colleagues, lecturers do reflect on their classroom situations. As earlier reported by Dia: 'When other lecturers talk you are able to relate I encountered that in classes…' In such instances, lecturers are able to interrogate and improve their teaching practice. Through reflection, more so on what colleagues are doing, lecturers continuously examine practice and move it to higher levels (Brown, Fry & Marshall, 2008).

6.3.4 Constraints

In this study, to a certain extent, the existing culture constrained lecturers' learning to teach in the formal settings. A comment from Nep, pointed out the lack of enforcement:

> For example when I came for PCAP my former Dean called me to his office and sat me down and told me… We have invited people to apply but only very few have applied how come you want to go for it? (Nep)

The Dean seemed to lack either the capacity or willingness to enforce lecturers' learning. A system where Deans were not enforcing lecturers' learning was likely to be constraining lecturers' learning as the decision to attend or not attend the programmes was at the lecturers' discretion. A comment from Kahe illustrated a culture of voluntarism and lack of valuing professional development:

> Even the way we came to PCAP, the person organising sent an email "those who want to join training ..." I just sent an email back for my name to be written. I realised most people here aren't interested in such things so I said let me just go and I attended. (Kahe)

A comment from Rasa demonstrated that due to the high demand on lecturers' time, learning to teach may be ranked low by lecturers on the list of their concerns:

> For an individual it becomes a bit tricky. Like the other day, I was given a scholarship to go and be trained on case study teaching. I applied and I was nominated. It happened that now the training took place immediately I came from another one. I was away for two weeks and then I come here again and have to

> go away for training for two weeks. I had to weigh, my students, my job, do you know I couldn't go for that case training. (Rasa)

Although centres or departments of learning and teaching were established at institutional level, lack of a systematic approach to professional development that was not enforced at departmental level by the Deans or HoDs resulted in a self-driven system. Such a system of voluntarism is constraining since lecturers, as human beings, prioritize their concerns but need to acknowledge enablements and have the capacity to circumvent constraints (Archer, 1995). Quinn (2012) points out that if not supported by enabling cultural systems and the relevant people who possess sufficient agency, these structures do not create enabling conditions for lecturers' learning.

In addition to the cultural constraints at institutional level, the level of interest in professional development for some of the lecturers who attended the learning provisions was also constraining. A comment from Demu illustrated a culture that did not value professional development: 'When I look back, the way ASDP came in at first, we felt the person coordinating it didn't have enough work. She is just creating things for us.' The perception about the academic development programmes (ADPs) by some lecturers seemed to be what Eca, another respondent, described as 'someone else's vehicle': "When I am 'forced' into a vehicle I don't know where it is going, it is somebody else's journey, it is boring and I will complain all through." This kind of learning was likely to lead to the objectives of the ADPs not being met.

The lecturers who also facilitated some of the sessions lacked time to consult with colleagues and utilize the available resources such as books. A comment from Jos, a lecturer as well as a facilitator, illustrated how the system was constraining as no time for consultation was provided outside the academic staff development programmes: 'Yes, it's an overload. I need to go back to work and the lecturers too need to go back to work so I forget about the people I have trained…' The existence of an ad hoc system of professional development that was mainly a one-time event and not embedded enough in the system was constraining.

Archer (1995: 295) asserts that where there is morphostasis (stability) of culture but morphogenesis (change) of structure, the growth of corporate agents is inhibited. Thus, the introduction of ADPs without change of lecturers' and deans' attitude towards lecturers' professional growth was likely to inhibit group growth. However, funding of the learning provisions and a change in the culture like initiating the lunch time book discussions and the lecturers' commitment to the practice were likely to bring about change in both the lecturers and the institutions.

In cases where the lecturers' courses of action were incongruent, the programme was constraining. For the funding, organization and design of the programmes and making resources available to operate as enablements there had to be a relationship of congruence with the lecturers' projects. Although Fox et al. (2009) point out that more active individual workplace interaction than mere congruence or relatedness is required. The findings revealed that facilitating lecturers' learning to teach is complex because some lecturers make decisions about their own learning. They sit in class and make decisions on what concepts to integrate. Facilitation of the sessions that was perceived not in depth and/or engaging was constraining. Some of the participants found it irritating and therefore chose not to learn.

> I was completely irritated with Blooms taxonomy and with the facilitator... In fact one of my criticism with ASDP is that I wonder if the facilitators are aware that they are working with people who are in an academic frame of mind constantly. (Luma)

The facilitation and some of the course content acted as constraints because some lecturers chose to acknowledge them as a constraint. Amundsen and Wilson (2012:110) acknowledge the fact that even a seemingly coherent design, although critically important, does not necessarily result in lecturers' learning to teach. The cultural emergent property in this case was that of maintaining the status quo that Quinn (2012:30) refer to as 'intellectual elitist discourse'. 'I really had a lot of barriers against the learner-centered approach because I felt that learner-centered approach tried to make the teacher irrelevant...' (Luma)

Lecturers resist learning to teach in formal settings due to a number of reasons. The time spent on the training could be inadequate and/or the objectives of the programme may not be clear to all lecturers.

A further comment from Luma showed that she only decided to learn when the intention was made clear:

> A thought slipped my mind when somebody said, how can we be better teachers? This is what caught my attention. We are not trained teachers, we are trained in our disciplines but not trained on how to teach. So this is important because then you will learn how to teach. I felt that this one makes sense. So I said so what can I learn about teaching? (Luma)

Trigwell and Prosser (1996) contend that the traditional form of academic development focusing on teaching strategies is unlikely to be successful without an ongoing focus on the intentions which are associated with the strategy.

Moreover, lecturers are likely to learn to teach in cases where they think that what they learn will make them effective lecturers. Over time, lecturers are likely to choose what to and what not to learn depending on their concerns. What was interesting about lecturers learning to teach in formal settings is that what was earlier rejected as irrelevant, for example, Bloom's taxonomy, became relevant much later. Archer (2003:140) states that the effectiveness of a constraint is jeopardized when agents decide to go round it. In this case again, what made lecturers appreciate what they learned in formal settings was what mattered to them most.

In addition to the enablements in the formal settings, some lecturers become proficient over time in the informal settings. This was enabled by the structural and cultural emergent properties in informal settings.

6.4 Enablements and constraints in the informal settings

6.4.1 Practices

In this study, the key enablement in the informal settings came from the lecturers' practices such as applying of a learner-centered approach (see Section 5.1) and peer support in terms of teaching observation and course design as analyzed in sub-section 6.3.1. The learner-centered approach and peer support involved lecturers interacting with students and colleagues in classrooms and staffrooms. The interactions during planning, facilitating, assessment and providing feedback were enabling and likely to lead to learning to teach in line with Hodkinson and Hodkinson's (2007) assertion that through interactions with others, in informal settings, a significant proportion of learning occurs. Through the interactions the lecturers negotiated and re-negotiated meaning giving structure and meaning to the learner-centered approach (see Figure 5.1). Lecturer-student and lecturer-lecturer interactions in classes through students' learning and teaching observation respectively, could be seen as examples of encounters between generations that Wenger (1999: 99), refers to as 'the aspect of practice that is most often understood as learning.'

The practice of the learner-centered approach enabled lecturers to actively participate in students' learning and in the process the lecturers learned. Firstly, by applying the learner-centered approach, lecturers applied educational processes that are based on actual participation for both the students and the lecturer. Lecturers actively participated through activities such as: planning for classes, facilitating the sessions by moving away from the podium, engaging in informal conversations with their students after classes. A comment from Riso demonstrated how he was able to learn from the students, the problem areas they encountered in his subject and he advised them accordingly during such conversations:

> Just take one of the students as they walk out and you walk out. How was today's topic? Mwalimu (for teacher) it is very difficult. Where? Mwalimu like today.....aaah, which area? This subtopic, then another one says that one I

> understood. Then I say okay, he understood, then I tell them to go sit together and work on it... (Riso)

The practice of engaging students in conversations within and outside class may enable lecturers learn about students' learning. Allowing students to talk about their learning may bring to the fore a solution such as peer teaching among students. Wenger (1999:101) contends that such processes 'are effective in fostering learning not just because they are better pedagogical ideas but more fundamentally because they are "epistemologically correct". The knowing can be matched to the learning and the competence that is used can be matched to the process by which it was acquired, shared and extended.

Secondly, through the learner-centered approach, lecturers created mutual relationships which enabled them learn in the process. Some lecturers, during their teaching, they let the 'voices' of most students to be heard (see Section 5.1.2). By practicing the learner-centered approach lecturers tended to foster good relationships. There was balance of power in the classrooms (Weimer, 2013). Students had some control but with responsibility over their learning. In such an environment, lecturers learned from students' questions, comments and suggestions. Fullan (2001) notes that turning information into knowledge is a social process that requires good relationships.

In this study, peer support review in terms of designing and reviewing courses enabled lecturers to mutually engage and learn practical ideas.

The practice of peer support review in terms of designing courses tends to be about mutual engagement, negotiation of meaning and development of a shared repertoire that Wenger (1999) describes as characteristics of a community of practice. In my earlier study, on drafting of intended learning outcomes (ILOs), it showed that drafting of effective ILOs can be enhanced through discussions at course and/or programme level with peers. Wenger (1999) shows that the process of negotiation of meaning, like discussing of ILOs amongst lecturers entails participation and reification. The lecturers participated by talking, writing, agreeing and/or disagreeing and reflecting. Wenger (1999:53) refers to the process as negotiation of meaning: 'a process by which we experience the world and

our engagement in it as meaningful.' The negotiation of meaning is a productive process which leads to a shared repertoire. At the end of the whole process, the lecturers had standardized course outlines to apply across groups of students. The collaborations in course design and teaching observations may be considered as structural emergent factors that enabled lecturers deliberate on issues concerning their subjects and students' learning.

Further, the teaching observation process enabled some lecturers to learn to teach as it made their tacit theories-in-use explicit. Schon & Argyris (1974:6) differentiate espoused theories from theories-in-use as what lecturers talk about when asked about their teaching and what they actually put in practice respectively. McAlpine et al. (2009: 261) suggest that it is important to examine the theories-in-use versus espoused theories and vice versa. Schon & Argyris (1974:14) note that explicitly stating the theory-in-use allows conscious criticism. 'We behave differently when we examine our theories-in-use explicitly and compare them with alternatives' (p.15).

Archer (1995: 213) notes that structural or cultural factors also provide agents with strategic directional guidance that enables them to take various courses of action. The lecturer/student relationship is internal and necessary and could result in a situational logic of protection in cases where the teacher-centered approach is applied leading to very little learning on the part of the student. In cases where a lecturer practices a learner-centered approach, the practice tends to be contingent but incompatible with students' abilities and capabilities. Students in some cases expect lecturers to tell them what to do as it was in the case of portfolios. This kind of situational logic is likely to lead to compromise on the side of the lecturer. But as suggested in a comment by Jebu: 'When you give students clear directions and when you are guiding them and telling them that we are learning this together, I haven't done this before', may lead to a situational logic of opportunism where gains accrue to both students and lecturer learning and change takes place. The practice of the learner-centered approach and peer support review although contingent and incompatible, can be made compatible to students learning.

However, caution need to be taken as practices such as teaching observation could easily act as constraints and may lead to lack of interest in learning to teach. Neth's comment illustrates how inter-personal relationships acted as a constraint:

> ...I guess I found it difficult to be told by the person who I find difficult to deal with to tell me about one of my weaknesses in teaching. Unfortunately after that I put a barrier internally to the whole issue of peer review in teaching. (Neth)

6.4.2 Roles

The role(s) played by lecturers in the learning and teaching environment acted as enablements. The role of a facilitator enabled them to learn from students' reaction and actions in class, from their suggestions, questions, comments and presentations. The lecturers seemed to have learned by taking the information around them, processing it and learning from it. A comment from Dia illustrates how she learnt from students' presentations: 'Actually through some of the group presentations I have learnt to teach better.' She learned about students' behaviour during class presentation and students' concentration span, as during the presentations she sat in strategic positions that enabled her observe how the rest of the students participated and were engaged in the presentations. But most importantly, she learnt about using or writing on the chalkboard in an orderly way to assist students to learn better:

> I could see how they were writing on the board and I could now think about the way I use the board. I actually realised board management is very important especially for my units you can't just start writing anywhere. By observing them I have to come up with a good structure which I have already mastered. Like you decide you want to write from the left to the right, you can't write all over. So when students come in late they can follow. (Dia)

Some of the things that lecturers tend to take for granted such as writing on the board are significant in students' learning. Allowing students to actively participate in their learning, for example, through class presentations, can enable the lecturer to learn how significant some things are that seem obvious and insignificant in students' learning. Archer

(1995:186) lists 'roles' as an example of structural emergent powers (SEPs). Archer (1995:187) also suggests the need to look at the distinction between the 'systemic' and 'social' as the difference between the roles and their occupants. By distinguishing roles from the occupants, we can understand better why some roles are personified by the incumbent. In this study, lecturers played their facilitation role differently and this resulted in the different outcome that were analyzed in Chapter 5.

The kind of teaching style or leadership also played a role in enabling lecturers to carry out their role as facilitators. Cilliers and Herman (2010) recommend the need to examine leadership styles that enable lecturers learn to teach. The lecturers who practised the student-centered approach tended to be democratic, participatory and collaborative. The lecturers *teaching styles* helped them learn more about teaching and learning. Razak et al. (2015) note that the leadership styles that lecturers are likely to practice are autocratic, democratic and laissez faire. However, they tend to learn when they are democratic and/or participatory. In this study the lecturers learned by being democratic, participatory and transformative. They involved students in making decisions about the course. By being participatory, they asked students about their expectations and became aware of things normally thought to be obvious and insignificant, yet significant in students' learning. Lecturers tended to emphasize inclusivity and shared learning as suggested by Byran and Smith (2000) in instances where class presentations were applied. Their focus was on students' learning that was relational, empowering and liberating (Noland & Richards, 2015). The lecturers engaged students actively in their learning and as they consciously participated, they learned *experientially*; seeing learning as rooted in reflection on experience (Byran & Smith, 2000).

6.4.3 Position

The position, mainly administrative that some lecturers held was enabling. As Heads of Departments, Directors of Centres and Subject Heads, they mobilized lecturers into groups. The position of Head of Department enabled lecturers to be intentional in conducting formative course evaluation, designing courses (course outlines) and engage in teaching observations. A comment from Ane illustrated how she had implemented

formative course evaluation at departmental level: 'After PCAP, I also introduced mid-term feedback not only to my class but to the department; that is a requirement.' Another comment from Mao indicated that she had enforced planning for students' learning at departmental level. Mao stressed the importance of planning for lectures as: 'That, I learnt from PCAP that if you want to succeed prepare and if you want to fail do not prepare; so all the lecturers in my department prepare.'

The respondents above were able to constitute a Community of Practice (CoP) through their positions as Heads of Department. Encouraging teaching observation is likely to lead to a practice as it is about doing; a Community of Practice (Wenger, 1999). In this study, a CoP is considered as a structural emergent power that enabled lecturers who share a concern (students' learning) to deepen their knowledge and expertise by observing each other's class. In the process they developed knowledge as earlier discussed. Billet and Shoy (2012:269) note that 'human learning is cultural learning that involves practice communities and enactment of such practices and how people participate in particular workplace is salient'.

Furthermore, departments are essential in lecturers' learning in cases where the leaders promote the correct kind of practices and discourses. Trowler and Knight (2000) emphasize the importance of departmental leadership as central to successful professional development. Trowler and Knight argue that leaders can affect the professional learning of all members in their department through cultures expressed in practices and discourses that they promote; similar to what some of the HODs in this study did in their departments.

6.4.4 Constraints

In this study some lecturers reported lack of support from their Deans as constraining. A comment from Jebu indicated that the Dean was more interested in her administrative work than her teaching:

> The last meeting I had with the Dean, I was very disappointed. I had organized this nice big way of telling her how I have changed my teaching, the portfolio story I

> was really going to tell her the way I have been determined this semester but she didn't ask me. I tried to bring it up and she said so, so we can now move on to….and I thought 'you don't want to hear about my teaching? I tried to bring it up again but she killed it. Maybe for her it was about, have you met your performance indicators? Is the writing center running? But for me I was meeting her as a lecturer not as a writing center person. That was a different story all together. I don't know whether she asked other people but for me she wasn't interested. (Jebu)

Another comment from Nep, showed that the Dean discouraged him from attending the PCAP: When I applied to attend PCAP my former Dean called me to his office and sat me and told me, Nep you are messing yourself… You have not completed your PHD… how come you want to go for it.

In situations where lecturers lack the support of the Deans and/or Heads of Department, they are not likely to learn to teach due to the too many demands on their time. Apart from teaching, some lecturers are involved in administrative work and others research. Creating a balance between the various demands so that they can have some time to learn to teach requires the Deans support. As discussed earlier, in situations where there are work demand requirements such as designing of courses, more so in subject groups, lecturers tend to learn.

Most lecturers in this study did not report about their learning to teach at subject group level and/or at departmental level. Out of a sample of twenty-five only two mentioned subject groups. This was likely to be a constraint to their learning as it contradicts Trowler and Knight's (2000) finding that lecturers' learning occurs most significantly in departments and workgroups. From the findings, it seems like most lecturers collaborated to a very small extent at subject or discipline level, they tended to work as individuals. A comment by Jebu, when asked whether she mentors colleagues about teaching, illustrated how learning from colleagues can be an inhibition in cases where lecturers might be wary of looking as if they are showing off:

> I do it with trepidation. I do that because sometimes, I wouldn't want people to think that I am doing it because I know. It will be a wrong approach to do that… I think

> the kind of attitude for us to have is that when people ask you to try something, they are not telling you to do. They are not telling you, you do not know. They are just offering some bit of help which everybody could do. (Jebu)

Teaching is considered by lecturers as a private activity and lecturers prefer their privacy to interferences by colleagues. However, Lave and Wenger (1991:93) note that there is anecdotal evidence, 'that where circulation of knowledge among peers or near peers is possible, it spreads exceedingly rapidly and effectively'. Pilfer, Baker and Lunsford (2015) point out that departments provide significant networks where lecturers share their experiences and challenges. However there could be instances, as in the above comment, when such networks act as constraints.

Table 6.1 shows a summary of the structural and cultural factors that enable and constrain lecturers' learning to teach in formal and informal settings.

Table 6.1: Enablements and constraints in formal and informal settings

FORMAL SETTINGS		INFORMAL SETTINGS	
ENABLEMENTS	*Likely effect(s)*	**ENABLEMENTS**	*Likely Effect(s)*
Funding of ADPs	Increase in corporate agents Personal and professional growth	Practice-Learner-centered approach	Active participation by lecturers. Create mutual relationship between students and lecturers.
Establishment of CETLs	Increase in corporate agents Personal and professional growth	Practice: Peer support review	Transformative learning. Communities of practice. Enhances self-awareness and self-consciousness
Effective facilitation of ADPs	Enhanced the lecturers' facilitation role and reflective practice	Collaborations with students, colleagues and industry	Transformative learning
Design of ADPs: Course content	Enhanced critical reflection and improve self-awareness	Roles: Facilitation role/teaching styles	Learn more from students about the facilitation of students' participation
Design of ADPs: Discursive engagements	Enhanced self-consciousness and self-commitment. Shaped lecturers' concerns. Created social and production spaces. Enhanced critical reflection	Position as Head of Department or Subject Head or Director of a Centre	Constitute a Community of Practice. Increase in corporate agents

FORMAL SETTINGS		INFORMAL SETTINGS	
CONSTRAINTS	*Likely effect(s)*	**CONSTRAINTS**	*Likely effect(s)*
Lack of systematic approach to lecturers' learning to teach.	Self-driven system or system of voluntarism	Practice of Peer support review: negative interpersonal relationships	Inhibits personal and group growth
Lack of support from some deans and HODs	Inhibited personal and group growth	Lack of support from some deans and HODs	Inhibits personal and group growth
Lack of interest in Professional development	Inhibited individual growth		
Poor facilitation	Lecturer's lack of interest		
Lack of consultation time (both facilitator and participants) after attending ADPs	Underutilization of the available resources		

So far, the analysis on learning opportunities and enablements and constraints in the two settings has been carried out independently. However, the learning in the two settings complemented each other and the influence of the two settings on lecturers' learning to teach was dependent on the deeper process of morphogenesis; the interplay between structure, culture and agency. Further, the knowledge, skills and values that lecturers applied were mainly acquired in formal settings but internalized in the informal settings, setting up a spiral of influence which was virtuous in nature.

6.5 Learning to teach in formal and informal settings as a virtuous cycle

Svensson et al. (2009) assert that learning in both formal and informal settings is necessary to produce competence. But competence is based on a combination of theoretical and practical elements which are acquired in formal and informal settings respectively. The theoretical element contributes to the generality and innovativeness of knowledge and the practical element guarantees the usefulness of what was learnt.

The theoretical knowledge acquired in formal settings was required in the informal settings. Svensson, Randie, and Bennich (2009) notes that theory is important to understand the learning process that happens in informal settings. Learning in informal settings is effective if supported by learning in formal settings. Learning in informal settings presupposes conceptual tools and explicit knowledge about the task and the work process that cannot normally be acquired through experiential learning at work. For example, to learn from students in the informal settings, lecturers needed to be democratic, participatory and collaborative. Lecturers who were democratic or participatory seemed to have acquired this disposition from the formal settings.

In a number of studies, lecturers' learning is associated with reflective practice. In this study to be a reflective professional was encouraged through learning about a reflective journal, in formal settings. This study shows that in informal settings, lecturers tended to reflect on their teaching through students' reactions and actions, questions and comments. Learning to be reflective professionals changed lecturers' thinking about student learning. Some were able to identify the cultural factors that are likely to hinder students' learning. Others were able to realize that students' learning styles are different and therefore each group of students and even students as individuals are unique. However, learning in informal settings can only be an arena for reflective learning if lecturers learn about reflective practice in formal settings.

The study showed that informal settings were significant in lecturers' learning in that they provided space and time for lecturers to internalize the ideas and concepts learnt in formal settings. Lecturers' learning in informal settings gave meaning and purpose to what was

learnt in the formal settings. The context and social engagements provided a context for learning to take place. The lecturers were able to take information around them, process it and learn from it. Some lecturers came to understand students' learning styles, reflective journals and constructive alignment that they learnt about in formal settings much later in the informal settings in their teaching practices. However, for lecturers to notice the students' learning styles or think about maintaining a reflective journal they needed to have learnt about the styles and the journals in formal settings.

Lecturers' concerns were found to be physical well-being, performative achievement and self-worth (see Chapter, 7). In the natural order, emotions elicited by students' action mainly led to an urgency and emergency of lecturers' body/environment relationship (Archer, 1995). The congruence and incongruence between lecturers' experience in formal settings and expectations in the informal settings and vice versa played a role in their learning. In the practical order, performative achievement was key. In this order, lecturers' pre-formed plans and expectations needed to be in tandem (Archer, 2000). For this to happen, learning in formal settings equipped the lecturers with knowledge and skills that enabled them to take advantage of the learning opportunities in informal settings and in developing plans that were congruent to their expectations.

Archer's work is about social mobility and she explains how people tend to modify their environments or plans so that they are on a progressive trajectory of concerns to projects to practices (Archer, 2003). What is not clear is how and what makes people modify their environments or plans. This study shows that when lecturers learn in both formal and informal settings, they are in a position to modify their teaching plans in a way that makes them become better lecturers. In formal settings they were equipped with knowledge, skills and values. The facilitation of the sessions modelled lecturers' teaching. Archer (2003) asserts that the primacy of the practical order and points out that 'the practical order is the anchorage of self-consciousness'. The modelling made them aware of how they teach and enabled them to modify their teaching in informal settings in a positive manner as they 'emulated some of the things'.

Learning opportunities in informal settings tend to be under-utilized as some lecturers may not be aware of what constitutes learning opportunities. This study shows that

because of having more primary than corporate agents in some departments, some lecturers who would have assisted others to learn did not do so for fear of being seen as a 'show off'. However, training in formal settings made lecturers aware of the learning opportunities that are available in informal settings. Furthermore, once most lecturers attended the sessions in formal settings, the sharing became easier and at a personal level they were bold and confident in their teaching and open to students. This enabled them to identify and utilize available learning opportunities in informal settings.

However, in some situations, as this study shows, learning in the two settings may result in a vicious cycle. The study revealed that in instances where the language used in ADPs is not clear and the objectives of the ADPs are not explained explicitly, lecturers learning in informal settings is likely to be constrained. In applying a learner-centered approach, some lecturers felt their authority as 'experts' threatened.

6.6 Prompts in lecturers' learning to teach

On employment and/or in their day to day teaching, lecturers are faced with conditions that are limitations or constraints to student learning. These limitations may or may not prompt lecturers to learn to teach. As earlier mentioned, it is important to examine the interplay between the emergent powers from the 'parts' and the 'people' that prompt lecturers and its' role in explaining why some people act and others do not. In this section limitations or constraints to students' learning that may prompt lecturers to learn to teach are discussed.

A prompt in this study is my interpretation of either a limitation or a constraint in the teaching and learning environment that spurs a lecturer to want to learn to teach. The lecturer may or may not learn to teach. Archer (2003) notes that the use of the word 'influence' in relation to structures and culture connotes some independence of their subjective reception and yet conditioning is a process that involves both objective impingement and subjective reception. Structures necessarily pre-date the actions which

transform them (Archer, 1995). Because of this there is always a 'before' Phase 1 in any sociological enquiry:

> Where it is assumed that some features of social structure and culture are strategically important and enduring and that they provide limits within which social situations occur… action approach…lends itself to an enquiry which must start from some previous point at which structural and cultural elements are treated as given (Cohen, 1968: 93 cited by Archer, 1995:138).

In the structural and cultural morphogenetic cycles the first phase (T^1) is structural and cultural conditioning. In the morphogenetic cycles, T^1 is a T^4 of previous cycles as 'structure and culture necessarily pre-exists the actions which transform it but changes in structure are brought about by those actions' (Archer, 1995: 151). According to Archer (2003), structural and cultural emergent properties are mediated by people who work through the shaping of the situations in which they find themselves.

In this study, analyzing prompts in lecturers' learning was considered a starting point of how learning to teach happens. This is in line with the assertion that to begin to understand any particular morphogenetic cycle 'it is necessary to begin with an examination of how things came to be' (Quinn, 2006:26). The analysis showed that at time one (T^1) to present time (T^2), when lecturers begin to teach, they are prompted to learn to teach by the socio-cultural emergent powers from structural conditions such as university policy statements, teaching and learning conditions and the composition of the student population.

University policy statements such as: missions, visions and teaching philosophies of universities pre-date the lecturers' actions. They are likely to condition lecturers to learn more about the university, mainly in the formal settings where the lecturers are made aware of the existence and importance of such policy statements. A comment from Kal, a respondent, showed how he benefited from the discussion on the mission statement and the university's teaching philosophy by his Vice Chancellor: 'I found it useful as I got to know more about the mission and the vision of the University. It made me more aware of the institution, the values and the history'. Shulman and Shulman (2004) suggest that

teachers learn and develop within a broader context of community. They argue that the teachers' vision, understanding, motivation and practice should be supported by the shared vision, knowledge base, commitment and practice of the community.

Teaching and learning conditions in lecturers' workplaces also pre-dated the lecturers' actions. Some of the teaching and learning conditions that the respondents confronted, involuntarily, were large classes. A comment from Jebu demonstrated how large classes were challenging and an impediment to students' learning. 'I have complained about the number of students in my classes. My main reason for complaining about the numbers is that I had about 170 students, and I think, for me, those are too many.' Although the large class was a concern to Jebu, as a lecturer, she had no control over the student numbers in a class. Archer (2003) notes that such a concern could lead Jebu to engaging with the limitations of the large class. In this case, she could pursue a course of action such as attending a workshop on dealing with large classes or engaging in conversations with colleagues. And this is so strong in this study that I introduced the word 'prompt'- a constraint or a limitation in the teaching context that brings about the desire to learn to teach. A comment from Jebu illustrates how large classes spurred her on to learn to teach: 'With teaching the large groups that I teach, I had to rethink the entire strategy and I had to begin looking at it in terms of how I can make students learn.'

In other instances, subjects such as law, accounting and finance (the subjects are not students' choices but university management find them useful for the academic programmes) offered to information technology students, for example, were a challenge. A comment from Bor illustrated students' lack of interest: 'Students tell me, I do your subject because I have no option. It is a compulsory unit in the information technology program. I do not know how it is going to help me become a better manager or leader.' Inter-disciplinary and multi-disciplinary programmes offered to students in the four universities pre-dated lecturers' teaching and were likely to affect students' learning. In such a case, the need to simplify complex learning material for such students could prompt and challenge a lecturer to learn as simplifying learning material and making learning interesting is one of the principles of effective teaching (Ramsden, 2003).

The student body was diverse in terms of learning needs, work experience, educational and cultural backgrounds. A comment from Kahe described student diversity thus: 'any group of students is different from the other like the cloud pattern in the morning and at midday.' One of the consequences of student diversity is that it places more responsibility on the lecturer to plan for uncertainty. A comment from Tas showed that although he often used the case methodology he was unable to anticipate the direction his students' work experience would take the class discussions. This required him to think more carefully about what he did:

> For example, there is a case that I have been using for many years but I still spend the same amount of time, 3-4 hours, preparing for the same session. Something I have been doing for the past 5 years because I don't know what to expect in the classroom. It will be a different group of highly experienced executives and they might be asking questions or saying something totally outside the case. (Tas)

Teaching highly experienced executives acted as a prompt. Tas had to continually think more carefully and critically about his students' learning. Learning situations tend to be unpredictable and they pre-date the teaching of lecturers. In the case of Tas, such situations prompted him to prepare or plan his lessons for the uncertainty.

Students' different abilities and capabilities were likely to prompt lecturers' learning depending on the strength. What the students did and what they did not do (actions and reactions) tended to prompt lecturers to learn to teach. For instance, a class of students with strong abilities prompted Luma to learn: 'They sit there, look at you and they listen and they take things very seriously. They don't laugh as easily. This forces me to think through things, raises the stakes. They grasp the concepts faster.'

Although comments by respondents in this study identified socio-cultural conditions at T^1 to be external, the conditions were likely to shape the teaching and learning situations that lecturers confronted involuntarily, challenging them to learn in the process. Archer (1995) explains the causal powers of the parts as 'emergent'. According to Archer (1995: 50), emergence implies 'a stratified social world including non-observable world.' It is about going beyond the empirical and actual world and analyzing the deep level of reality

(Sayer, 2010). Elder-Vass (2010) explains emergence as a relationship between the properties of a whole and its parts in a particular moment of time, that is, a property that comes into being through social combination. Thus, in this study I went further and identified the 'emergent' properties or powers underlying the structural and cultural conditions that prompt lecturers learn to teach. The findings revealed that it was not the policy statements, teaching and learning conditions, and students' composition per se that prompted the lecturers, but the emergent properties.

6.6.1 Structural emergent powers

The analysis showed that lecturers' awareness of students' other commitments, such as work, prompted some respondents to learn to teach as they encountered the consequences for the learning of the students concerned. Dia's comment, for example, indicated that her pragmatic motive for changing practice, use of the e-learning platform, was driven by the need to maintain contact with students who found it difficult to attend tutorials. 'Now I don't have to worry about those who have missed class. Especially for the evening students, some of them cannot make it to class because of work.' Being aware of students' other commitments that made them miss classes prompted and challenged Dia to learn how to use the e-learning platform.

University policy statements did not prompt the lecturers to learn to teach but the urge in the lecturer to ensure that his or her ethos and the teaching approaches were congruent to the university's ethos and teaching philosophy, had this effect. A comment from Luma demonstrated the urge to align the personal and university's philosophies: 'When I attended one of the sessions, I was more interested in the university's ethos; does it match my philosophy?' Crawford (2010) points out that perceived incompatibility and lack of correlation between institutional and individual priorities can be constraining. However, in instances where they are facilitative, aligned and responsive, they generate enablements.

Other emergent properties were the realization that large classes were a constraint to students' learning as in Jebu's case (see Section 6.5) and the need to simplify complex

ideas and motivate students in the inter- and multi-disciplinary programmes. A comment from Bor showed the strategies he applied to simplify his subject:

> I try to help the students get a different perspective. When I ask the same question at the end of the class, they appreciate and they are able to see that it has really made a big difference. In many cases, I try to use industry experience and to teach the students to captivate their attention to the subject. (Bor)

The encounters of lecturers with students of diverse educational and cultural backgrounds were other emergent properties. A comment from Neth demonstrated the effect of such encounters:

> I had never seen anybody react like that when I approached them in a friendly manner trying to create a rapport between myself as the lecturer and the student and there was no response. That was a real shock to my system. (Neth)

What is to be noted is that the prompting of the SEPs and CEPs was found not to be direct but dependent on the reception and realization by the lecturers. The study shows that realization by lecturers, the urge in the lecturers to align, the awareness by the lecturers of students' work commitments and the encounters of lecturers with students of different educational and cultural background tended to prompt lecturers to learn how to teach.

In this section, I have attempted to analyze the underlying emergent structural and cultural properties that prompt lecturers to learn to teach in formal and informal situations in private universities in Kenya and the role emotions play. Thus a one-size-fits- all academic development strategy is unlikely to work in cases where prompts are not considered. It is important that lecturers' learning to teach begins with the prompts that exist within a particular context, or take account of the prompts in place.

6.7 Summary

In this chapter, lecturers' learning to teach, based on their accounts, in formal and informal settings has been discussed. The analysis shows that although most lecturers in private universities in Kenya have no prior training in teaching in higher education, support in terms of academic staff development programmes exists. The programmes transform lecturers and foster development of more complex experiences. Although learning opportunities in the formal settings complement those in the informal settings, the relationship between the two was found to be in a virtuous cycle; lecturers acquire knowledge, skills and values in the formal settings and these are internalized in the informal settings through interactions with students and colleagues. However, for lecturers to interact they need to practice a learner-centered approach, which they have to learn in the formal settings.

The objective factors in the formal and informal settings that shape the concerns held by lecturers, and enable and constrain their courses of action have also been analyzed Funding is a prior condition to the establishment of centres on learning and teaching and offering of ADPs. In formal settings, the organization of programmes in terms of facilitation and design enabled and constrained lecturers' learning. In informal settings, the practices, the roles and the position(s) held acted as enablements and constraints to the growth of lecturers at personal level and as corporate agents.

The analysis of structural and cultural properties that prompt and challenge lecturers to learn to teach is important in developing a contextual approach to lecturers' learning to teach. However, structural and cultural emergent properties enabled and constrained or prompted depending on how the individuals responded. In the next chapter, I discuss the contribution of lecturers to shaping their learning to teach.

CHAPTER 7

THE LECTURERS' CONTRIBUTION TO SHAPING THEIR LEARNING

7.0 Introduction

In Chapter 6, I analyzed and discussed the learning opportunities, the SEPs and CEPs that shape the concerns lecturers hold, and enable and constrain their courses of action; and the structural and cultural emergent properties that may or may not prompt lecturers to learn in formal and informal settings. Structural and cultural emergent properties in formal and informal settings enabled and constrained lecturers' courses of action. In this chapter I attempt to demonstrate that in response to these constraints and enablements, lecturers consciously shaped the situations they confronted and in the process they shaped themselves (Archer, 2003).

In this chapter, the analysis of data is based on the research question: how does lecturers' agency shape their learning to teach in both formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya? The lecturers' contribution in shaping their learning in terms of their agency, the concerns that they held and the courses of action that they undertook is analyzed. The following headings emerged from the data:

i. The individual's role in learning to teach.
ii. The personal emergent powers: Intentionality and reflexivity
iii. The lecturers' concerns.

7.1 The individual's role in learning to teach

Whereas the learning opportunities analyzed in the previous chapter (see Sections 6.2 and 6.3) were available to most lecturers, the individual lecturer had a role to play in learning how to teach. The responsibility of the individual in learning how to teach was evident in the comment, mentioned earlier, made by Jebu:

> … And *your contribution* to the learning whether you are reading, whatever you are doing, is one little segment. But when *you bring* in students that adds to the segment, when *you bring* in external material, published articles, videos about teaching, that is another segment, *you bring* in an observer that is another segment, when *you listen* to other lecturers as well that is another segment and for me I think all these things have worked towards helping me learn how to teach better. (Jebu)

Jebu emphasized the individual's role in learning to teach by the use of the second person pronouns *'your'* and *'you'*, that is, the onus to learn to teach in both formal and informal settings lies with the individual lecturer. Similarly, Clegg (2005:153) emphasizes the contribution of an individual lecturer in higher education by stating that:

> If we want to theorize about change in education we need a theory that can account for the selves who make choices as academic workers and students, how we engage in constant internal and social debate about conditions of practice, and how we should act to resist, restructure and preserve aspects of the complex system called higher education.

Lecturers played the role of aggregating of the various 'segments' that made up their learning that included: learning from facilitators and other participants in the formal settings and from students, colleagues and industry in the informal settings.

The role the individual lecturer plays was found to be evident in a number of instances. For example, the decision to attend or not attend the ADPs was at the lecturers' discretion. A comment from Sey indicated that the lecturers as individuals made the decision to attend the sessions: 'in our institution, CETL has been trying to organize those peer forums and the only people who attend are those who know the value.' Although there was support at the institutions, the decision to attend was at the lecturers' discretion as there was no systematic approach, as noted in the previous chapter, to lecturers attending the ADPs.

A comment from Theo illustrated that the respondents had to participate in the discussions: 'This semester we have introduced TED talks. That is over lunch hour, once

a week, we meet and watch and then discuss and there is an input coming from individuals.' Although objective structures such as CETLs, impinge on the situations which the lecturers confront involuntarily by enabling their learning, they require the intelligent co-operation of the lecturers (Archer, 2003). In the above cases, the lecturers' decision to attend and actively participate in the discussions was essential to the functioning of CETLs.

The lecturers' role in shaping their learning was extended to the learning that happened in the informal settings. A comment from Sey illustrated that learning in the informal settings required an individual's initiative: '…After PCAP and from the workshops I started doing my own research, borrowing books from the CETL and reading and then I started experimenting.' After learning in formal settings a strong individual drive was necessary to enable one to continue learning in the informal settings.

As discussed in section 5.1, the respondents had a role to implement the learner-centered approach they learnt about in the formal settings. Most of them attended the same learning sessions in the formal settings but ended up implementing the learner-centered approach differently. This implies that factors other than the ADPs played a role in variations in the lecturers' actions. Comments from a number of respondents expressed their role to implement the approach as that of a facilitator but in different ways. A comment from Mao illustrated that in her classes, the centre of attention was not her but the students: 'When I go to class it is not just talk, it is not about me it is about the students…' Jos role was that of being a guide on the side: 'I move away from the podium, of the one who knows; of the lecturer and I sit with the students at the same level…'

Apart from facilitating students' learning, lecturers in this study identified themselves with the different teaching approaches they applied. It was up to the individual lecturer to choose an approach that he or she was most comfortable with and one that was suitable for his or her subject. A comment from Bor illustrated evaluation based teaching as a teaching approach that he found useful and enabled him to learn about student learning:

> Evaluation based teaching has helped me to know and to get to insist on things where students do not get some principles which have some technical understanding even the philosophy behind them. (Bor)

A comment from Eca showed that she had to decide on using reflective practice as a teaching approach and that involved will and passion:

> So I realized that there was need to become passionate and push these issues of reflecting; listening to your own thoughts and trying to interpret them and seeing the meaning of them and all that. So I picked that mode of teaching. (Eca)

The comments are illustrative of the lecturers choosing a teaching approach they were most comfortable with. They established what Archer (2000:220) refers to as a *modus vivendi;* or 'a way of life' (Kahn, 2009: 263). According to Archer (2000) each person has to work out their own *modus vivendi* within the three orders of reality; natural, practical and social. In this study, individual lecturers applied specific approaches to students' learning to teach better. They established and applied the teaching approaches as a way of life.

In the above cases, although the lecturers dedicated themselves to applying various teaching approaches, they were able to implement them efficiently especially after learning to teach in the formal setting. In the formal settings they were exposed to the theories and other resources such as books and journal articles on learning and teaching. Archer (2003:135) notes that 'it is the pursuit of specific projects (courses of action) driven by concerns held by individuals that ensures that they engage with constraints and enablements in the social world'.

In the practical order, the personal emergent property of self-monitoring is a key contribution to subject/object relation. People tend to monitor themselves to determine which achievements are important to them (Archer, 2003). In this study, lecturers monitored their performance by designing courses in such a way that they learnt from students' assessment and feedback. A comment from Bor showed that he monitored his performance through marking. 'When I give students any form of assessment, I do not

ask anybody to mark it. I mark it and I read word for word... it helps me a lot to understand how I have taught' (Bor). A comment from Jebu showed that to learn how to teach, she monitored her teaching by looking at the students' feedback and results.

> …one of the things that made me learn is by looking at the students' results. Because, I looked at them and I thought, well we were having fun in class, we were discussing in class, I was very open to discussion but that doesn't translate into results. (Jebu)

Likewise, Luma pointed out that she learnt by monitoring the students' reactions and actions:

> They are third year students and they are very serious, they sit there, look at you and they listen and they take things very seriously. They don't laugh as easily. *This forces me to think through things*, raise the stakes. (Luma)

Neth indicated that she learnt by monitoring her teaching through formative student evaluation of the course:

> When I do the student assessment now, even if the faculty has its own evaluation form, nearly every semester I create my own evaluation form because I want to get feedback on how the students perceive that I am living my educational values. (Neth)

Beneath the aforementioned decisions, as whether to attend or not attend, the teaching approach to apply and how to self-monitor, are personal emergent powers or properties that made lecturers act the way they did. According to Elder Vass (2010) and Archer (1995), human action may be enabled and constrained by social causes (see Section 6.2) through vested interests and strategic guidance without being fully determined by them since human beings have emergent causal powers. These powers modify relationships from within and without. Archer (1995, 2000, 2003 & 2007) enumerates reflexivity, intentionality, self-consciousness, self-monitoring, self-commitment; personal identity and social identity as examples of personal emergent properties. In the next section, I analyse

and discuss intentionality and reflexivity as personal powers that emerged in lecturers' learning to teach.

7.2 Personal emergent properties (Agency)

For most lecturers, any initiative that they believe will lead to better student learning is likely to foster their learning to teach. According to Archer (2000), we have powers or properties (agency) that lead to structural and/or cultural elaboration but agency is itself elaborated in the process. Archer (1995:257; 2003:118) defines agents as 'collectivities sharing the same life-chances, do have interests (in improving or protecting the latter) which are external to the roles yet can be pursued through them'. Agents from the morphogenetic perspective are 'agents of something, agents of the social-cultural system and equally of systemic features they transform' (Archer, 1995:257). In the case of lecturers, they could be agents of student learning and their agency is likely to mediate the formation of the personal and social identities and also group growth (corporate agents). It can be argued that lecturers' agency mediates their learning through their actions in the workplace shaping the situations they involuntarily confront.

This section concentrates mainly on the personal emergent powers, in relation to the question: 'What is it about human beings that gives us the power to act? posed by Elder Vass (2010:87).

7.2.1 Intentionality

In this study, it was evident that lecturers learned in formal and informal settings because they had reasons for doing so. As discussed in Chapter 5, they were interested in student development and their personal and professional growth. Archer (1995:198) asserts that one of the most important differentiating powers proper to people is their intentionality - 'their capacity to entertain projects and design strategies to accomplish them' (which may or may not be successful).

Respondents expressed the concept of intentionality in various ways. Eca indicated that to learn one had to be intentional since learning is found éverywhere'.

> Do you know that since I learnt and I continue to learn that I don't have to be an authority, but that there is so much to learn …I realize that lessons are everywhere, learning how to learn is the issue. (Eca)

Another comment from Nep expressed the reason for being intentional as: 'I have learnt to go for things rather than wait for them to fall on my head.' In the above comments, the lecturers seemed to have been expressing intentionality as crucial in their pursuit to grow as lecturers.

As earlier stated, attending the ADPs was at the lecturers' discretion. Therefore, they intentionally attended and actively participated in the ADPs. Kahe points out that although most lecturers had no intention of attending ADPs, he intentionally attended:

> Even the way we came to PCAP, the person organising sent an email "those who want to join training ..." I just sent an email back for my name to be included. I realised most people here aren't interested in such things so I said 'let me go and I attend'. (Kahe)

In instances where there is lack of a systematic approach to the attendance of ADPs by lecturers, their personal emergent power of intentionality may play a big role. According to Bhaskar (1989), intentionality is what demarcates agency from structure. Behind such an act as attending an ADP there is a reason for the lecturer to attend, and to go further and actively participate there is a bigger reason to do so. Bhaskar (1989:90) cited in Archer (1995:153) states that 'intentional human behaviour is caused, and…it is always caused by reasons, and…it is only because it is caused by reasons that it is properly characterized as intentional'.

The informal settings provided a number of learning opportunities such as learning from students' actions, questions and comments and colleagues during peer support review and from the work experience in the industry. To learn from such opportunities some lecturers reported that they had to be intentional. A comment from Rasa showed that she

went to class with the intention of learning from the students: 'Every time I go to class I know I am going to learn.' Whereas Trigwell and Prosser (1996) point out the need for lecturers to have the intention of being student-focused for it to succeed, in this study lecturers had to be intentional to learn.

Some respondents were intentional in what they wanted to learn from colleagues. Luma stated that her reason for attending a colleague's class was to expand her knowledge in that particular discipline:

> So I do learn from other lecturers. That is because there were aspects that I think I need to have a sense of when I am teaching my subject. And I thought perhaps philosophy would answer this and I went to listen; to learn the philosophy. (Luma)

The intention of most of the lecturers that participated in the peer support review, as earlier analyzed (section 6.3.1) was to learn from the teaching processes and colleagues. Knight et al. (2006) link intentionality with structuring of the learning processes and note that intentional formal learning relates to learning opportunities which are structured (follows a curriculum) for learners while intentional informal learning relates learning opportunities that are not planned for learners (engage in reflection). The formal and non-formal learning could also be unintentional. However, behind the processes are people who intentionally attend the ADPs and actively participate in the discussions and practice self-reflection. Archer therefore adds more value when she looks at intentionality as the 'capacity to entertain projects and 'design strategies to accomplish them' (Archer 1995:198). The ascription of intentionality to learners shows how important the role of learners is in shaping their own learning trajectory.

Despite the fact that most of the respondents indicated that they learnt intentionally, there were cases where some lecturers' intention was not to learn. A comment from Luma indicated that she had no such intention. Her intention was to teach students: 'When you said, I want to know how lecturers learn?' I thought I do not go to class to learn. I remember thinking, do lecturers learn? And I thought, I do not go to class with an intention of learning.' However, from her interactions with students, she seemed to have

unintentionally learned. She described the learning as accidental:

> *It has never* occurred to me that when I am walking to class that I am learning, and yet *I do learn when I go to class*. Any learning that happens is *accidental*... The students walk in with the intention of learning while my intention is different. Even though over the last few years and every time I walk in and out I learn, *it is never* my intention. It affects my future planning. My intention is to teach them something but somewhere, there is an interaction that happens. (Luma)

The above comment is contrary to the data analysis on lecturers learning from students in section 6.3.1. The above comments illustrate that some lecturers go to class with the intention of teaching and not learning. However, even in cases where people are unintentional in learning how to teach but intentional at wanting the students to learn, that unconsciously drives them to learn. Learning in formal settings is therefore likely to assist lecturers who learn unintentionally or who have no intention of learning from students or colleagues to be intentional in learning to teach in informal settings. When lecturers learn about teaching in the formal setting they are likely to become intentional in their learning since such programmes evoke learning (Knight et al., 2006).

By reflecting on the discourse and equipped with knowledge and skills acquired in the formal settings, lecturers are likely to end up being individuals high in private self-consciousness. A comment from Romu indicated that she was more conscious about students' learning after attending ASDP:

> But for me my greatest influence was in 2009 when the university organized a teaching training (ASDP). They taught us something about learner centeredness. For me it was monumental. Before that I just used to go and lecture, lecture, lecture. I learned that if I guide, students can come up with a lot. The students can participate in their own learning. (Romu)

Archer (2000:128 2003:119) notes that the practical order is 'pivotal' amongst the three orders as it 'is the anchorage of self-consciousness and enumerates it as a 'prime

relational emergent property from our relation with the world with which our physical constitution dictate that we must interact if we are to survive'.

Another comment from Tas demonstrated his mind at work consciously reflecting:

> You see I had to improve my listening skills; I couldn't stop myself from reacting, as in that way I was beginning to go back to the traditional method where I was the center of everything. But now the students are the center. My role is to facilitate but I ended up talking more than the students. So what I did was to consciously monitor myself that is only talk after three to four comments from the students. Now I am beginning to limit my minutes of talking and put more minutes for my students to talk. (Tas)

The above comments show that the level of lecturers' self-consciousness about student learning improved after learning in ADPs and over time in the informal settings. Jaimovich (1999) points out that individuals high in private self-consciousness will have more accurate knowledge about students' learning and better articulated schemata. They will also possess greater awareness of changes in emotion throughout various situations, but more so awareness of the changes in the dynamic and complex teaching and learning environment in higher education. And these, depending on the structural and cultural factors that shape the situations that lecturers confront involuntarily, are likely to result in different courses of action.

In other studies and to a great extent in this study, the focus has been on lecturers' learning to teach in formal and informal settings. However, self-knowledge (embodied knowledge) that results from self-consciousness of lecturers has not been considered. Such self- knowledge could be limiting in instances where lecturers reflect on their teaching without involving others. For instance, self-consciousness is likely to be enhanced when lecturers learn from subject groups to design courses, class observations and informal conversations. Being self-conscious makes 'us recognize what is expected of us' (Archer, 1995:282).

In their effort to negotiate their identity as lecturers, a number of them tended to be self-conscious about what went on in class. Archer (2000:8) further notes that 'to possess the power of self-consciousness also implies that we are reflexive beings.' Thus the primacy of practice is demonstrated in the development of thought itself.

7.2.2 Reflexivity

Internal conversations or reflexive deliberations were significant in the respondents' process of learning, especially when learning in informal settings. Archer (2003:4) defines reflexivity as 'the regular exercise of mental ability shared by all normal people, to consider themselves in relation to their (social) contexts and vice versa'. She stresses that reflexivity is a means by which we make our way through the social world. It involves such patterns of internal conversation as 'mulling over', 'rehearsing', 'imagining', 'reliving' and 'prioritising' (Kahn, 2009). As such, reflexive deliberation provides a basis on which an individual determines future courses of action in relation to objective circumstances (2003). Archer (2007) further suggests that to understand why people act at all and what motivates them, it is necessary to examine their personal concerns and inner reflexive deliberations.

In this study, some lecturers had a broad plan for shaping their professional lives. A number of respondents indicated that they deliberated upon their concerns to come up with various courses of action and learnt in the process. Daw notes that after every class, he deliberated alone on what had gone wrong in the classroom and literally talked to himself about his desire to do better:

> So in essence I would go back and do reflective learning and say, "I would never do that again" without talking to anyone or reading any book. I would say I want to do it better next time. So that is how I have changed my learning over the years in terms of teaching or improving it. (Daw)

Musholt (2013:649) explains 'I' thoughts as being about self-consciousness. 'I' thoughts are thoughts with first person content than non-accidentally refer to oneself. Further, Musholt (2013:670) asserts that 'the continuous sense of self is also immune to error through misidentification due to the fact that it is necessarily information about the

person.' The abovementioned comment shows the lecturer was concerned about teaching better so as to improve students' learning. He tended to learn through internal conversations. Archer (2003) argues that it is possible to be subject and object through inner conversation by formulating our thoughts and then inspecting and responding to these utterances as subject to object.

Raka showed that she deliberated on the challenges of teaching her subject:

> Research Methods is very challenging. I have *thought* and *thought* and *thought* why it is such a difficult course, everybody complains. No matter how well students are taught, no matter who the lecturer is in Research Methods, when the students come to do their projects in fourth year there are always problems. I *thought* and even when I went to the Graduate School, I found the graduate students experience the same thing. (Raka)

The comments above showed that sometimes lecturers are confident in relying upon their own mental resources. This is what Archer (2007: 94) refers to as autonomous reflexivity, that is, a situation where consultations do not take place. In the above cases both respondents were confronted with the challenge of teaching their subject. Whereas Daw stated that that is how he learned, Raka's comment implies that no learning took place. Some lecturers may be concerned about students' learning but without the concern culminating into a specific course of action. In such instances, the challenge of teaching the subject is likely to persist because the concern is misplaced. Instead of performative achievement, the concern may be physical well-being or self-worth. It is also possible that the kind of reflexivity may be what Archer (2007: 93) refers to as 'fractured reflexivity'. This is situation where one engages in deliberation that intensifies personal distress rather than resulting in purposeful courses of action (Kahn, 2009). According to Kahn (2009) someone who waits for events to unfold rather than seeks to shape those events, is characteristically the case for fractured reflexives. Such a person may be less likely to learn to teach.

Furthermore, some lecturers engaged in communicative reflexivity to mediate the role of socio-cultural factors., Communicative reflexivity is an internal conversation that entails 'thought and talk' and it is completed and confirmed by external dialogue with others prior to a course of action being initiated (Archer, 2007:93). A comment by Jebu expressed communicative reflexivity as: 'sometimes that talking to a friend is what makes a bulb to tick or some switch to come on'. A comment from Neth showed that at first, she deliberated on the students' reaction in class without consulting (she had picked on two students to find out how they were doing and none of them responded) but later consulted colleagues about the same before embarking on learning about the students' culture:

> I thought a lot about that experience and realised that there are many issues here that I don't know about e.g. cultural and which I need to learn about in order to be able to reach out to the students. (Neth)

Through consultations with colleagues she was able to learn about the students' culture and what was affecting her teaching negatively:

> Informally I could ask colleagues and friends, 'why could this kind of reaction happen if I am going with an innocent intent?' So people began to explain to me what the education system is like in Kenya. Little by little, I began to realise that in general the whole educational context and background of many of the students is very different from my own experience of my learning, as a child, in the university etc. It was a whole opening up of my awareness of the diversity that existed between myself and my students. (Neth)

The lecturer was interested in learning more about the socio- cultural factors that were affecting her interaction with her students. Her concern was the effect it had on her students' learning. In this case, the influence of the educational and cultural factors was mediated by her concern about the students' performance and communicative reflexivity. According to Kahn (2009), communicative reflexivity happens in instances where there are stable relationships. Academic developers and Heads of Departments may need to provide support in terms of creating such stable relationships especially for new lecturers in an institution and for continual learning of all lecturers who may be communicative

reflexives. This points to the need for academic developers to increase their understandings of the kinds of reflexive deliberations that lecturers apply in conducting a project that involves learning and the understanding should be linked to the influence of socio-culture structure (Kahn, n.d).

Neth demonstrated she reflexively deliberated on her values and eventually dedicated herself to practicing the Living Theory:

> After teaching three semesters, I realised there is still something here which I am not getting to the bottom of in terms of understanding where my students are at, in order to be more effective in my teaching. Along with that, I began to realise as I thought more about it and as I became more interested in the Living Theory and in trying to identify what really are my education values. (Neth)

Archer (2007:93) defines meta-reflexives as 'those who are critically reflexive about their own internal conversations and critical about effective action in society'. Some lecturers like Neth tend to be critical about their teaching until they get to a point where they develop a teaching approach that they feel they can live with. For example, Neth deliberated on her educational values and settled on living her values of love, honesty and freedom and encouraged her students to do the same (see Section 5.4).

According to Archer (2007), it is important to promote reflexivity. For instance, in the case of lecturers, the subjective powers of reflexivity mediate the role that structural and cultural powers play in influencing the lecturers' courses of action that result in various practices. In this study, whilst most lecturers' internal conversations were on students' learning; what to do and what not to do, whether students were learning or not, it is possible that some lecturers, including those outside this study, do not mull over, rehearse, imagine, relive and prioritize students' learning. Learning in formal settings and informal settings provides learning opportunities that can make them individuals that are high in private self-consciousness. The interactions in ADPs and the interactions thereafter in the informal settings may result into stable relationships that are appropriate for communicative reflexivity. Lecturers may also end up being critical about themselves

and settle on a *modus vivendi* that serves society when they are exposed to various theories in formal settings.

Furthermore, through internal conversation, personal identity in the three orders of reality may be achieved (Archer, 2003). Through reflexive deliberation, lecturers are likely to conceive courses of action for the concerns that they hold such as their physical well-being, how they can teach better or performative achievement and how they can be significantly recognized in society or their self-worth. These concerns are analyzed and discussed in the next section.

7.3 Lecturers' concerns

Archer (2000:193) defines emotions as 'commentaries of human concerns'. In this study, the concerns that lecturers held tended to shape their agency. According to Archer (2000), the concerns in the three orders of reality: natural, practical and social are physical well-being, performative achievement and self-worth. The ultimate concern is what gives us our strict identity as particular persons - our personal identity and social identity which is a subset of personal identity developed in the social order. Thus, the dilemma is 'which precise balance to strike and what exactly features in relation to our ultimate concerns?' Emotions associated with physical well-being such as joy, happiness, and fascination tend to happen in the natural order but if experienced in relation to *subject/subject* or *subject/object* then they relate to the social and the practical orders respectively (Archer, 2000). In this section, I analyze the lecturers' concerns as: physical well-being, performative achievement and self-worth in the natural, practical and social orders respectively.

7.3.1 Physical well-being as a concern

In Chapter 6, the SEPs and CEPs that prompt lecturers to learn to teach were discussed. In this section the emotions elicited by the SEPs and CEPs are analyzed. According to Archer (2000: 241), 'emotion foster our commitments, it does not determine them'. Archer (2000: 195) defines emotions as 'commentaries upon our concerns' that are elicited by

significant events. Evidence suggested that encounters with students, teaching of large classes and learning about university policy statements (See section 6.6.1) were some of the significant events or critical incidents that elicited emotions in lecturers. Events are significant when they touch upon one or more concerns of the subject (Archer, 2000). In this study, lecturers were emotional about students' learning. Emotions such as curiosity, worry and happiness or joy seemed to have played a role in lecturers' learning to teach.

At classroom level, the encounter with students of different educational and cultural backgrounds prompted and challenged lecturers to learn to teach. However, it was emotions like curiosity or fascination, joy and disappointment that had a tendency to action. A comment from Luma showed that curiosity elicited by students' action of providing more than adequate responses in relation to the lecturer's questions, had a tendency to action. '...Now I am going to start a reflective journal with this particular group because they have taught me, they are much more serious, they fascinate me a lot...' (Luma). This relates to what Archer (2000) explains about the effect of congruence and incongruence between people's expectation and experience. In situations where lecturers' expectations and experience were incongruent, like in Luma's case, they tended to learn as 'the high intensity end of emotion was activated' (Archer, 2000: 207).

At faculty or departmental level, the need to simplify complex ideas and motivate students in the inter- and multi-disciplinary programmes prompted and challenged lecturers to learn to teach. However, it was the emotion of hope on the part of the lecturer, elicited by students' negative attitude towards a subject that prompted the lecturer to learn how to simplify complex problems. 'The person organizing PCAP sent an email 'those who want to join training ... I sent an email back to be one of the participants...I want to see someone change. I want to see that, that negative attitude has changed' (Kahe).

At institutional level, established evaluative standards such as students' rating of courses also elicited emotions. According to Archer (2000: 218), 'well established standards are evaluative standards but their effect is dependent upon our feeling bad if we fall short of them and good if we live up to them.' In line with the above mentioned view, a comment from Gel demonstrated that she was happy when students rated her highly but noted the need to continue learning to teach: 'The evaluation in subject X was good. Out of 5 the

rating was over 4. I want to do more because I should never be complacent...' (Gel). Gel's assertion of complacency was in line with what Archer (2003: 109) notes: 'emotions cannot be said to ensure satisfaction but are plans and readiness for ensuring satisfaction.' However some lecturers were disappointed as the ratings did not reflect the effort invested into the course. '...in their feedback it was a bit interesting, they did not rate me very highly, I think the average was 3.5 out of 5 and I was a bit disappointed because I had put a lot of effort into it' (Neth). Thus both positive and negative feedback elicited emotions.

In this study, emotions were central to the things that lecturers cared about most and to the act of caring itself. The emotions were brought to the fore when lecturers expressed what they cared about most. Lecturers were joyful when students' opinion about their teaching was positive and also when students effectively learned their subject. '… it gives me great joy, to see someone who is not able to speak a language and then they start speaking' (Rau). The emotions joy and disappointment are what human beings tend to feel in their environment. Lecturers felt the emotions in and outside classrooms. However, the same emotions of joy and disappointment prompted lecturers to learn to teach in cases where students' opinion about their teaching mattered and how effectively they performed their job. This affirmed Archer's (2000:213) contention that the emotions experienced in the natural world if experienced in relation to *subject/subject* or *subject/object* then they relate to the social and the practical orders respectively.

7.3.2 Performative achievement as a concern

In the practical order, the ultimate concern is performative achievement that of easing one's task by making it efficient and effective. Kahn et al. (2012) note that performative achievement is key to lecturers' professional growth. Archer (2000) points out the primacy of the practice in relation to the other orders. Unlike embodied and discursive knowledge in the natural and social orders respectively, practical knowledge in the practical order 'is an active process of doing since it is performative in relation to material culture' (Archer, 2000:121).

Comments from most respondents showed that what they cared most about was their ability to teach well but stated it from the students' learning point of view. The objective of their teaching approaches seemed to be, to enable students develop in terms of knowledge, skills and values. Mij demonstrated that building students' minds is what he perceived to be good performance:

> For me building peoples' minds is better than building a building because when you build people's mind, you are touching on God's creatures and to me that is very valuable. What I found out is that as you teach, you are placed in a position to shape people's thinking in many dimensions. (Mij)

What Mij seems to have cared about most was enabling students to grow in many facets of life. It could be acquisition of knowledge, skills and values. A comment from Rau showed that he cared most about students acquiring skills: '…I know it gives me great joy, to see someone who is not able to speak a language and then they start speaking. That transformation is incredible.'

From the data, what five respondents cared about most in students' development was to inculcate values in students. A comment by Jan illustrated the value of character building: 'character is key to me, it is something that I hold onto. For Mao, she cared most about transforming students into orderly citizens:

> When I see my students orderly in life whichever way: they are orderly, they respect themselves and others, they are more human than when they came, they are happier and they have confidence in themselves then I know I have taught. (Mao)

Some respondents cared about changes in students' attitudes towards their subject: '…Even before attending PCAP, I had passion for teaching. I want to see someone change. I want to see that, that negative attitude towards my subject change' (Kahe).

What other respondents cared about most in the students' development was the students' learning process.

> So I think in my own teaching and also drawing on my learning how to be a teacher. I always used to ask myself. I wonder how students are learning. I wonder whether students' experiences are better than what I had. Maybe I am just standing here talking for two hours and they are getting nothing. I always had this at the back of my mind, whether the students were learning. (Raka)

Lecturers in this study cared about student learning and how well they performed their teaching task. They cared about changing students' attitude' towards their subjects, character building and acquisition of knowledge and skills. This encouraged them to attend programmes such as PCAP to attain what they felt was important.

People tend to be emotional in the practical order, where performative achievement is their 'ultimate concern', more so in instances where the expected plans have not worked. A comment from Neth indicated that she cared about her performance:

> The student feedback was a bit interesting, they did not rate me very highly, I think the average was 3.5 over 5 and I was a bit disappointed because I had put a lot of effort into it. In fact, the Head of Department when she gave me the paper with the information, she wrote on it, 'this was very good evaluation for this unit because students are very weary of these units. (Neth)

According to Archer (2000), if performative achievement is a strong concern of the subject then emotions occur at the point where pre-formed plans and expectations have not worked. A comment from Neth showed that she was happy with one of the issues that the students raised in the evaluation:

> The lecturer has a right attitude towards students. That I thought was interesting because it meant that among all the things that they were rating me on if I would have a higher grade I might be at 3.6 or 3.7, they did feel that there was some sort of good interaction between myself and them. Which is good, they actually appreciate it more than me just delivering the content. (Neth)

While for some lecturers, being a lecturer was good enough, for others it was not good enough. Being a lecturer meant more than being a good teacher. Archer (2000) notes that simply to be a role incumbent has no such emotional implication. Lecturers who vest none of their self-worth in the end result of their teaching are not downcast with student evaluation or failure for example. Archer (2000:219) argues that 'it is our definition of what constitute self-worth that determines which normative evaluation matters enough for us to be emotional about'. In the next section I analyze self-worth as a concern.

7.3.3 Self-worth as a concern

In this study, the analysis shows that lecturers were also concerned about their personal and professional growth. In being and becoming good lecturers, Leibowitz et al. (2012) note that lecturers tend to be driven by the concern of their self-worth. Wenger (1999:5) equates 'becoming' to 'identity' that is 'a way of talking about how learning changes who we are and creates personal histories of becoming in the context of our communities'. How lecturers were viewed by their students; the students' opinion and ratings in a way illustrated their 'becoming'.

> Actually one thing that I have loved in teaching and makes me feel that I can teach for a very long time is the joy of hearing the students say that I am a very good teacher. I have heard that many times I think that makes me feel good (Daw).

Archer (2000) affirms that 'the most important of our social concerns is our self-worth. As earlier stated it is our definition of what constitute self-worth that determines which normative evaluation matters enough for us to be emotional about them. A comment from Daw indicated that according to his students' definition a good lecturer is one who relates theory to practice: '... they comment that he knows what he is doing or he knows the industry very well'. I feel like I know something I need to share with them and this is very important for me.' (Daw)

Comments on the ultimate concern in the social order, self-worth, were given by six respondents. A comment from Nep showed that his ultimate concern was that of being seen as an all-round academic:

> I have also tried to grow my professional holistically as a teacher, researcher and administrator… A person, who engages in multi-things that are long lasting, is actually recognized not just in the institution but by peers and is seen as a professional rather than somebody who has taken advantage of a situation. (Nep)

One way in which some lecturers improved their self-worth, in terms of being good teachers, was by gaining industry experience. Some lecturers like Demu and Tas were able to relate their teaching (theory) to practice after gaining some industry experience. A comment from Demu demonstrated that he was feeling more significant:

> … you see technology in my opinion is at the service of other disciplines. We are not programmers but we are in the business of saving lives. Our programming skills are changing the way healthcare is delivered. I never imagined I would work with the ministry of health but here I am. (Demu)

Social identity unlike personal identity is more about being public, for example, being a public expert on teaching or what Archer refers to as an actor. Archer maintains that it is only specific people who become 'actors' (2003:118). To achieve a social identity, actors go beyond being particular persons, for example having a personal identity of a lecturer, but find other roles such as a presenter at a conference or a consultant in which 'they feel they can invest themselves, that is, they personify the roles they choose to occupy' (2000:257; 2003:118).

Similarly, a comment given by Mao demonstrated her ultimate concern as going beyond class but through networking:

> One thing that I have learnt is that teaching in higher education does not only involve what you do in the classroom it is more than that. You cannot be a successful lecturer in the classroom without getting involved in research, workshops and training, and conferences. So personally, I have learnt that to be a successful lecturer I have got to go beyond the classroom. (Mao)

Whereas personal identity is achieved in the three orders: the natural, practical and social, social identity is only achieved in the social order. Unlike personal identity, which is achieved by people such as lecturers with the same life opportunities, achieving social identity requires one's agency to mediate one's becoming an actor. The above cases are illustrative of situations where the lecturer's agency mediated their becoming actors. They had to go the extra mile of working with the industry, carrying out research and presenting papers at conferences. Their being intentional and reflexive enabled them to become socially significant as demonstrated by comments from Mao. In Mao's case, networking comes with some self-worth in the academic world. Phrases by Mao that tended to demonstrate self-worth are highlighted in the comments below:

> ... that *really drew people's attention* because they wanted to know what have I learnt.
>
> … I was called to be *a keynote speaker* at teaching practice conference, the first teaching practice conference to be held by…. I was a keynote speaker, Mary.

By seeking to gain work experience in the industry, as stated earlier, lecturers exercised their agency, making them more socially significant in the eyes of the students. Similarly, networking with colleagues also made some lecturers socially significant in the eyes of colleagues. They became 'actors'; that is the lecturers played the role of being lecturers but went further and gained more roles in the social world.

An analysis of lecturers' contribution to shaping their learning was considered integral to this study, thus 'voices from below' need to be heard (Crawford, 2010:189). Within an analysis of enablements and constraints one finds that there might be a layering of emergent properties that may enable or constrain the ability of lecturers to exercise their emergent powers of intentionality, reflexivity, self-consciousness, self-commitment and self-monitoring in order to become better lecturers. However, to be effective, enablements require the intelligent co-operation of agents while constraints is an indispensable character when accounting for morphogenesis and/or morphostasis of structure and culture (Archer, 2003). Additionally, Archer (2007) notes that personal identity can only

be achieved when people pursue specific social projects that ensure they engage with enablements and constraint (Kahn et al., 2012). Agents being reflexive beings prioritize their concerns and an ultimate concern that is reflexively defined is likely to 'act as a prism which, refract the exercise of the objective enablements and constraints' (Archer, 2003:140).

So far, the analysis on lecturers' learning in formal and informal settings and the contribution they make in shaping their learning has been carried out independently. However, the structural and cultural emergent powers enable and constrain the lecturers' courses of action and the concerns they hold in instances where lecturers acknowledge them. Thus the SEPs CEPs and PEPs do not work independently. They influence each other in a causal not cause-effect relationship. Further analysis that outcome of lecturers' learning resulted from the interplay between the aforementioned emergent powers as explained below.

7.4 Interplay between the structural, cultural and personal emergent powers

In chapter 6, the emergent powers such as awareness, realization were identified as prompts to lecturers' learning and the design and facilitations of the courses as some of the enablements and/or constraints. However, the structural and cultural emergent properties had an effect, only when lecturers conceived and pursued various courses of action that they were emotional about and upon which the SEPs and CEPs would impinge. Archer (1995:195) notes that 'the structural and cultural can exist unexercised as people are capable of resisting, suspending and circumventing the structural and cultural tendencies.' But the agential powers can also be suspended or modified by the SEPs and CEPs. Thus the SEPs and CEPs have to be mediated by agential powers (Archer 1995:196).

One can argue that the interplay between the SEPs, CEPs and PEPs, in this study, occurred at two levels in lecturers' learning to teach. The first level was between the constraints that acted as prompts in lecturers' learning and the emotions they elicited and the second level between the emergent powers that acted as enablements and

constraints and the lecturers 'concerns. For example, the students' work commitments identified in section 6.6, though a prompt, only exerted their powers on Dia, when she got worried about students' absenteeism. She became aware of the consequences, students' failing, that absenteeism is likely to result into. A comment from Dia showed that this was mediated through her course of action of learning how to use the e-learning platform:

> In 2010, I attended the first ASDP, the one for June and I think during the same year I attended the one for 3 months; the short course. That helped a lot as at least, I was able to know about the e-learning and actually got to using it because I never used to use e-learning at all. Even I used to wonder how it fits in our school. (Dia)

The considerable range of abilities within classes due to students' work/industry experience prompted, but had an effect only when Tas viewed the students' work experiences as a threat. A comment from Tas showed that the realization that the learning situation was unpredictable, especially when using case methodology made him plan for uncertainty: '…there is a case that I have been using for many years but I still spend the same amount of time 3-4 hours preparing for the same session…

Further, the students' educational backgrounds, students with strong abilities prompted but had an effect only when the respondents encountered a group that surprised and/or fascinated them. This was mediated through planning on using a reflective journal. The students' actions challenged Luma to document her reflections-in-action: 'Now I am going to start a reflective journal with this particular group because they have taught me.' A comment from Neth (asked students a question and did not receive any response) showed how she made an effort to learn more about the students' culture in general.

> *I thought a lot* about that experience and realised that there are many cultural issues here that I don't know about, but need to learn about in order to be able to reach out to the students. Informally, I could ask colleagues and friends: Why did this kind of reaction happen when I was asking with an innocent intent? (Neth)

Although emotions such as worrying (fear), uncertainty and surprise (fascination) prompted lecturers to learn to teach in formal and informal settings, the lecturers' agency

mediated their learning on how to use the e-learning platform, to plan extensively and purposeful and to maintain a reflective journal. This affirms Archer's trajectory of concerns to becoming projects and then practices (Archer, 2003:135).

In this study, the lecturers tended to care about students' learning and therefore learned how to teach. Otherwise, given situations where the lecturers' emotions were not elicited, and the effects of the SEPs and CEPs were not significant to the lecturers, very little or no learning was likely to take place. According to Archer (2003:6), people possess the intentionality to define and design courses of action in order to achieve their own ends. Some lecturers may not perceive the above SEPs and CEPs as prompts, leaving them unexercised. In such cases, they are likely to incur the opportunity costs (the value of the benefit foregone) such as effective teaching, effective assessment and feedback methods, and personal and professional growth.

The analysis also showed that in instances where lecturers cared about student development, they attended and actively participated in academic staff development programmes where they acquired new knowledge, skills and values. But as they got transformed from lecturers who 'tell' to lecturers who 'guide', they also changed the existing structural and cultural conditions. The classes became 'noisy' and students in most cases had some control over their learning. Learning became interesting.

In instances where lecturers cared about their personal growth, they sought work experience from industry and networked with colleagues. As they willingly offered their services, they transformed people's lives and the structure in industry through technology but in the process they grew at personal and professional levels. However, the lecturers had to make themselves available to the enablements and actively participate in the learning through their actions.

This study also revealed that although learning opportunities existed in both formal and informal settings, lecturers had to commit themselves and be intentional to effectively learn how to teach. Lecturers had to commit themselves to attend and participate actively in the academic staff development programmes. They also had to commit themselves to apply the learner-centered approach and design courses. However, for a lecturer to

commit herself or himself to attend and participate in the programmes required the existence of the programmes. The programmes enabled lecturers across disciplines and departments to meet. In the process, the category of corporate agents increased. Essentially, the increase in corporate agents changed the situations that lecturers confronted. As lecturers changed the situations of their students' learning, they also changed themselves at personal and professional levels, leading to double morphogenesis (Archer, 1995).

Thus the interplay between the three emergent powers namely: SEPs, CEPs and PEPs resulted in the outcome discussed in Chapter 5.

7.5 Summary

Most studies on academic staff development concentrate on the structural and cultural factors. In this chapter, I have attempted to answer the question posed by Elder Vass but in relation to lecturers; why do lecturers act at all? Put differently why are there variations in the actions of people who operate in similar learning environment?

Lecturers have a role in contributing towards shaping their learning. As individuals they have to aggregate the learning from various sources into a whole. How they aggregate the segments brings about differences in their actions.

Lecturers have a role in establishing a *modus vivendi,* a way of life. They do this by making a number of decisions about their learning how to teach. Firstly the decision to attend or not to attend the ADPs and actively participate in the discussions is at their discretion. Secondly they have the option of implementing what they learn in the formal settings. And even when they implement their learning, they do so using different approaches that they are more comfortable with and which suit their subject. Thirdly they monitor themselves using different ways. Decisions they make about themselves and students' learning are likely to bring about variations in their courses of action.

The study also shows that in instances where the level of intentionality and commitment to learning varies this is likely to bring about variation in the degree to which each lecturer

learns how to teach. Contrary to findings in this study, some lecturers have no intention to learn from students, however they unconsciously learn.

Lecturers practice different modes of reflexivity. Whereas lecturers who are autonomous reflexives tend to learn on their own, communicative reflexives require stable relationships to learn and meta-reflexives extended their internal conversations to the good of society. The various modes of reflexivity cause variation in lecturers' actions.

A study by Knight et al. (2006) classified the lecturers' motives to learn to teach as extrinsic and intrinsic. In this section, what the lecturers cared about most, the 'ultimate concerns'; student development and personal and professional growth that are intrinsic can be considered as the main motives in their learning to teach. Whereas some lecturers cared most about how well they taught, some were motivated by the need to become socially significant. The actions of the lecturers whose concern was self-worth were likely to be different from those whose concern was performative achievement.

Lecturers play performance and reflexive roles: (i) at the level of performance, they are encouraged to learn. At this level they tend to make decisions that mainly concern how they perform their teaching task well and also exercise reflection; (ii) at a deeper level of reflexivity, their main concern is self-worth. They think about what kind of person they want to be, about the aims they want to achieve. At this level, there are underlying values that make them act in the manner that they do. Such values include: love, honesty, hospitality, humility and magnanimity.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

8.0 Introduction

Most studies on lecturers' learning to teach have approached the topic from the students' learning perspective and what it does to students' learning. For example, Biggs and Tang (2011) discuss constructive alignment that is likely to lead to deep learning approaches. Trigwell and Prosser (I996) and Marton and Saljo (1976) discuss students' approaches to learning; student-centered versus teacher-centered approaches and deep and surface learning respectively. However, Shulman and Shulman (2004) and Knight et al. (2006) focus on how and why teachers learn to teach. And Ramsden (2003) discusses learning to teach in higher education but from a students' perspective. Studies by Bamber (2008); Clegg (2009) and Cilliers and Herman (2010) focus on the impact of academic staff development programmes. The focus of this study is on the latter trend, on how lecturers learn to teach.

I examined how lecturers learn within both formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya from the critical and social realist perspective. The critical realist theory was applied as an explanatory and methodological framework. It was a useful lens for understanding lecturers' learning to teach in both formal and in informal settings and the role lecturers' play in their learning. Most significant were the generative mechanisms that led to various courses of action, resulting in various outcomes.

Archer's (1995) morphogenetic framework was used as a methodological and conceptual framework. The morphogenetic approach task was to provide an account of how the 'parts' condition people's projects or courses of action in the social world (Archer, 1995: 201). The framework was found appropriate in explaining the role cultural, structural and people emergent properties play in the lecturers' learning to teach in both formal and informal settings. It was also found useful in explaining the construction of both personal and social identities and the importance of group growth (corporate agents).

In this chapter, I base my conclusions and implications on the following research questions.

1. What is the outcome of lecturers' learning to teach in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya?
2. How do lecturers learn to teach in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya?
3. What structural, cultural and personal emergent powers prompt, enable and constrain lecturers' learning to teach in formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya?
4. How does lecturers' agency shape their learning to teach in both formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya
5. What implications for a framework for the provision of opportunities exist for lecturers' to learn to teach in private universities in Kenya

8.1 Conclusions

8.1.1 The outcome of lecturers' learning to teach

Although the outcome form the last phase of the morphogenetic approach, I found it useful to first determine the outcome since retroduction was the research approach applied in the analysis. The use of retroduction requires one to work backwards from the outcome to the processes that led to the outcome. According to Archer (1995) structural, cultural and group elaboration is also about change (morphogenesis) and stability (morphostasis) hence the need to look at whether or not change had taken place. This study established the outcome of lecturers' learning in private universities in Kenya as: application of a learner-centered approach; perceived effect on students' learning; affirmation of the lecturers' current practices; and lecturers' personal and professional growth.

Most lecturers in this study applied a learner-centered approach which is regarded as good teaching. However, they implemented it in different ways. While some of the

lecturers stressed the importance of planning in advance and planning with students, others were interested in the facilitation process; others still stressed the assessment and feedback process and some talked about the formative course evaluations. This study showed that by applying the learner-centered approach in totality, as shown in Figure 5.1, lecturers were likely to sustain their learning as there will always be something new to learn either at the planning stage or facilitation or assessment or when providing feedback to students and receiving students' feedback on the course. Lecturers continually learn to teach in cases where they engage students in all the stages in a learner-centered approach.

Lecturers' learning to teach in this study also, according to the lecturers, resulted in students 'experiencing' learning. The students did not just learn to pass examinations but some 'took charge of their lives' and created wealth through their companies and others made a difference in their work places and society. This study revealed that in cases where lecturers taught in such a way that students experienced learning, there was reciprocal learning. Lecturers learned from students when they collaborated with them in various ways.

Lecturers grew at both a personal and professional level. When lecturers attended academic programmes offered in the formal settings, they acquired knowledge, skills and values from the facilitator and the experiences they shared with colleagues. This enabled them to become confident and bold in their teaching and more open to students. It enhanced the teaching practice. Thereafter, some continued learning to teach through networking with colleagues and through consultancy work in their discipline areas. They went further and developed a 'social identity'. This enhanced their self-worth. They felt valued by society, colleagues and students as they had become 'actors'.

But most significant was the group growth or growth of corporate agents and formation of Communities of Practice (CoP). Programmes such as PCAP, ASDP and CRT brought lecturers together and learning opportunities such as the lunch-time book discussions, and peer support review led to an increase in corporate agents and development of CoPs. During book discussions, lecturers had a common need; learning the theory on teaching and learning. This was to enable them articulate teaching and learning issues in a more

informed way. An increase in the category of corporate agents can lead to lecturers' continual learning since lecturers as corporate agents can articulate issues on teaching and learning. Corporate agents unlike primary agents are 'active' individuals that have the capacity to mobilize resources and alter the context in which the primary agents (Archer, 1995).

8.1.2 Learning to teach in formal and informal settings

8.1.2.1 Learning to teach in formal settings

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The study revealed that lecturers' learning in formal settings was important as the settings provide specific kinds of opportunities and structures. It established that some support for lecturers' learning existed within the four universities in terms of established centers or departments on teaching and learning. The specific programmes in the four universities were referred to as: Academic Staff Development Programme (ASDP), Effectiveness in Teaching Programme, Critical Reflective Thinking in teaching programme and Lecturers' Induction Programme. The study established that the academic programmes in the four universities provided lecturers with learning opportunities. They provided the means through which lecturers affirmed their current practices and learnt new ones. The affirmation was a source of encouragement. It increased lecturers' confidence, making them bolder to try out other teaching approaches. It also created some certainty in the teaching approaches that had been uncertain. The programmes provided space that was confirmatory.

In the staff academic programmes, lecturers acquired new knowledge and skills that helped them think about and act on teaching and learning issues in a structured way. They developed a language with which to communicate students' learning. Apart from lecturers feeling that they 'belonged' to a community, they also became more confident in trying out novel ideas. They learned how to teach and what to apply in the complex and dynamic classroom situations. The study shows that in the formal settings lecturers tended to develop complex experiences after learning from the facilitator (s) and other participants in the academic staff development programmes.

Learning in formal settings provided lecturers with ways and means of practicing the facilitation role in cases where the facilitation of the learning sessions was modeled according to their teaching practice. The study showed that as a result, lecturers became more creative and innovative.

Learning in formal settings also played a role in cases where university management found it necessary to disseminate to lecturers the university's ethos. One of the reasons for some lecturers attending the sessions was to learn about the university's ethos.

Formal settings provided space and time to lecturers to grow professionally. During the 1-2 week training, lecturers got a chance to learn about reflective practice. The way the courses were designed and facilitated enabled them to experience the teaching approaches adopted by the facilitators. Reflective practice could be something that lecturers always do but in the formal settings they learned how to do it in a more conscious and structured way. They learned about available teaching and learning resources and teaching and learning theories. This acquainted them with examples and ideas about scholarship of teaching and learning. Additionally, the taxonomies and the portfolios that they learned about provided them with vocabulary and/or language that they used to communicate to other interested parties in the teaching fraternity. As they put into practice some of the things they had learnt such as constructive alignment, they reflected on learning outcomes, activities and assessment. In the process, they became better lecturers.

Formal settings created a forum for lecturers to learn from each other and provided opportunities for group growth (corporate agency). The converging of lecturers from different universities departments and disciplines, as in the PCAP and ASDP programmes and lunch-time book discussions created an environment that encouraged a continuation of conversation in the informal settings. Long-term contacts and networking among participants within and outside the universities was likely to lead to the growth of corporate agents. Lecturers as corporate agents were likely to bring about change as they have vested interests in improving students' learning.

Formal settings acted as training grounds for lecturers' careers in teaching and learning in higher education and management of teaching and learning aspects at department level. The study revealed that academic staff development programmes in the formal settings provided a broader view of academic practice enabling some of the lecturers to become effective administrators, capacity builders and consultants in different aspects of pedagogy. Other lecturers pursued higher academic qualifications, such as a Ph.D. in teaching and learning in higher education.

Learning to teach was enabled and in a few cases constrained by structural and cultural factors. In the formal settings, factors such as funding of the academic staff development programmes and making available resources such as books and journal articles and giving lecturers time off to participate in the programmes enabled lecturers to learn. The organization of the programmes in terms of facilitation and design enabled lecturers to learn. Lecturers were able to apply a learner-centered approach. During the academic programmes some of the facilitators modelled their teaching to the approach. Discursive engagements with colleagues during the sessions enabled lecturers to reflect on their teaching and learn in the process. The study shows that facilitation and discursive engagements created self-awareness in the lecturers.

The study further established that funding of the post-graduate certificate in academic practice (PCAP), internal funding for other programmes such as ASDP and CRT and the setting up of centres on teaching and learning by universities appear to have created favourable conditions. The programmes were contingent but compatible with the lecturers' concerns for improving student learning and personal and professional development. This resulted in a situational logic of opportunism that brought about change in both the structure and culture of academic staff development. The resulting changes entailed: less frustration experienced by lecturers and more efficiency in their teaching (see outcome in 5.4), the growth of corporate agents and personal and professional growth.

Furthermore, during PCAP, ASDP and CRT the converging of lecturers from different universities, different disciplines and departments created a situational logic of

opportunism. In this case both social and system integration were low, implying that the effect of the relationship between the existing culture on lecturers' learning which is a cultural issue and the introduction of PCAP, a structural factor, was contingent and incompatible. Thus the design and facilitation of the courses brought about change at institutional and personal levels.

However, in instances where the departmental culture and personal culture were incompatible, a case of high necessary contradiction resulted (Archer 1995:295). In this study, some of the Deans, for instance, preferred inquiring about lecturers' administrative roles to professional growth and some lecturers' perceived the academic staff development programmes as 'someone else's vehicle'. This was likely to result in a situational logic of protection where morphostasis or no change results as the Deans' desire seemed to be maintaining the status quo. However, the study showed that some lecturers circumvented what could have been a constraint and attended the programmes resulting in morphogenesis.

8.1.2.2 Learning to teach in informal settings

This study established that lecturers' learning to teach in informal settings can drive students' learning as the stakes are higher; there is immediate impact. Lecturers learn because they care about students' learning but more significantly, students' learning is about their role, identity and purpose as lecturers.

This study revealed that informal settings provided lecturers with time and space to experience learning. Lecturers learned experientially by observing students' presentations and colleagues teach. Experiential learning in the informal settings made the representations learnt in the formal settings clear. Lecturers also reflected on the strengths and weaknesses of colleagues and related some of the things they observed to their own teaching. Such an environment provided lecturers with learning opportunities that enabled them to continually clarify and reflect on what they learnt in the formal settings.

In the informal settings lecturers learnt various aspects of teaching from students, colleagues and work experience in industry. They learnt more about course design and course content from colleagues in their subject groups and course delivery (recap) from colleagues feedback on teaching observation. From students, they learned about presentation skills such as the position to take in class, the speed at which to communicate and the use of the chalkboard. From the industry, they learned about time management and how to relate practice to theory. From guest lecturers they learned about course delivery and how to motivate students. The social engagements with students and colleagues in the classrooms and working in the industry provided a useful context for learning to take place as opportunities and ability to learn develops in close relation to the ability to perform tasks. The different sources provided learning opportunities that challenged them to continually learn to teach.

Learning in informal settings provided a holistic learning experience as lecturers were able to learn from authentic activity, context and culture. In this study, learning in informal settings was found to be an aspect of all activities as pointed out in studies on situated learning (Brown et al., 1989; Lave & Wenger 1991), instead of one kind of activity as in formal settings. Lecturers related practice to theory from their work experience in industry. They learned practical ideas about the teaching process from their students and colleagues. What lecturers learned from their colleagues during class observations, course designs and work experience in industry provided the menu of the learning opportunities for what Lave and Wenger (1991) refer to as a 'learning curriculum'. A learning curriculum utilizes the available learning resources while a teaching curriculum is full of instructions. This study established that the contents of the learning curriculum for lecturers' learning to teach could be students' expectations, questions, comments, suggestions, actions and reactions in class.

The study showed that the informal settings offered opportunities to lecturers to experience emotions that were 'commentaries upon their concerns' (Archer, 2000). Emotions such as joy, disappointment and fascination elicited by events such as students' absenteeism, students' actions and reactions in class prompted and challenged lecturers to learn to teach.

In informal settings, structural and cultural factors that enabled and constrained lecturers' learning were established as: (i) change in work demand requirements such as designing of courses; (ii) the practice of a learner-centered approach and peer support review; and (iii) the roles played by the lecturers such as the facilitation role and (iv) the positions held by lecturers such as Head of Department and Head of Subject. The practices enabled lecturers to interact with students, colleagues and industry creating more learning opportunities. The role of lecturers as facilitators enabled lecturers to internalize and apply the knowledge and skills learnt in the formal settings. The study showed that when lecturers facilitate students' participation, they critically engage students and learn in the process. The study also established that the position of Head of Department was enabling in that some Heads of Department supported lecturers learning by encouraging practices such as teaching observation and course design.

The practices and the facilitator's role tend to expose lecturers to 'public' scrutiny. The study showed that such practices elicited emotions such as joy, disappointment, satisfaction, fascination and threat. The lecturers were happy when students rated them highly and disappointed with the relative low ratings. At times the 'negative' comments were difficult to handle and they were disappointed with the Deans' lack of interest in their professional growth. Although some lecturers continued learning, in instances where their expectations and experiences were incongruent, some were, for example, constrained by interpersonal problems in the practice of teaching observation.

In summary, the two settings formal and informal were found to be crucial in lecturers' learning but in different ways. Whereas learning in formal settings was restricted to specific time, content, facilitator and participants, in informal settings, learning 'takes place everywhere' and the content ranges from aspects of learning that lecturers consider insignificant to significant. Further, in formal settings, lecturers were involved in discursive engagements with the other participants only but in the informal settings they collaborated with students and colleagues and the wider society. The knowledge and skills that lecturers acquired in the formal settings were mainly theoretical but in the informal settings the learning was mainly practical. The above differences are summarized in table 8.1 below.

Table 8.1: Learning opportunities in formal and informal settings

	Learning in formal settings	*Learning in informal settings*
Organization of the learning	Restricted to specific time, content facilitator and participants	It takes place everywhere' with students, colleagues and the wider society. It is general and content ranges from the least to the most significant
Collaboration	Colleagues	Colleagues, students and the industry
Curriculum	Teaching curriculum	Learning curriculum
Type of knowledge and skills	Mainly theoretical	Mainly practical

Although the two settings provided different learning opportunities as shown in table 8.1, this study further revealed that learning in the two settings complemented each other in a virtuous cycle.

8.1.3 Lecturers' contribution to shaping their learning to teach

Although the influence of programmes such as PCAP, CRT and ASDP was 'monumental' lecturers as individuals and as a group contributed towards their learning how to teach. Lecturers have vested interest in improving students' learning and therefore are agents in higher education. This study shows that lecturers' agency mediates their learning through their actions in the workplace shaping the situations they involuntarily confront.

Archer's (2000) argument that as human beings, we have powers or properties (agency) that lead to structural and/or cultural elaboration but agency is itself elaborated in the process.

The study established that lecturers contribute towards shaping their learning. Lecturers learn from many sources but as individuals, they have a role to aggregate the learning from various sources into a whole.

The study revealed that lecturers have a role in establishing the kind of lecturer they want to become. This is what Archer (2000:220) refers to as a *modus vivendi* or a way of life. Whereas some lecturers cared most about how well they taught, others were motivated by the need to become socially significant. Whilst the structural and cultural factors such as the ADPs shape the situations that lecturers confront, the findings showed that lecturers make basically three decisions, namely to: (i) attend or not to attend the ADPs and actively participate in the discussions; (ii) implement or not to implement the learner-centered approach; and (iii) monitor and evaluate their teaching or not to. However, lecturers have vested interests in students' learning and the opportunity costs may be high in instances where lecturers make decisions that are contrary to making them effective lecturers.

This study also showed that personal emergent powers of intentionality and reflexivity that are internal to the lecturers were empowering. This was in contrast to power, access and transparency, which are external to the individual. Lave and Wenger (1991) consider these elements empowering. This study revealed that lecturers mediated the objective conditions of formal and informal settings through their personal emergent properties of internal conversation or reflexive deliberations and intentionality. Lecturers with high private self-consciousness reflected on students' learning and through internal conversations they learned from self/embodied-knowledge. Self-consciousness and self-knowledge were advanced via both formal and informal opportunities. Learning in formal settings about reflective journals and portfolios, for example, enabled some lecturers to make their tacit self-knowledge explicit. In informal settings, lecturers monitored themselves through students' assessment and feedback on course evaluation.

In conclusion, Archer's morphogenetic approach was found useful in explaining how lecturers learn how to teach in both formal and informal settings. Leibowitz et al. (2012), Kahn (2009); Quinn (2006, 2012) and others have applied aspects of the morphogenetic approach. This study also contributes towards the application of the morphogenetic approach. Specifically, the term 'prompt' as applied in this study is an addition to the analysis of enablements and constraints in the social conditioning phase at T^1. Prompts in this study refer to the structural and cultural emergent powers that act as limitations to students' learning. Therefore, they may prompt and challenge lecturers to learn how to teach. The contribution of lecturers' agency in shaping their learning how to teach in both formal and informal settings is an area that has previously been scantly studied.

8.2 Implications

Based on the literature on lecturers' learning to teach and findings in this study, learning how to teach takes place in both formal and informal settings. However, lecturers effectively learn how to teach in both formal and informal settings. Their concerns and courses of action are mediated through their reflexive deliberations, intentionality, self-commitment and self-consciousness. In this study, I have generated practical implications for university management, lecturers and academic developers as outlined below.

8.2.1 Practical implications

8.2.1.1 University management

Learning in formal settings plays a significant role in lecturers' learning how to teach but it requires resources. Funding is a necessary and sufficient prior condition to learning in formal settings. Universities management may be required to fund academic staff development programmes. Resources other than money, such as books, were found to be useful in the growth of corporate agents and the practice of the scholarship in teaching. In order to utilize resources fully and increase the number of corporate agents, other strategies similar to lunch-time book discussions could be applied. Incentives such as grants could assist lecturers from different departments, disciplines and/or universities to

carry out research on institutional or national projects on teaching and learning. This would encourage lecturers to practice scholarship of teaching and learning and make students' learning transparent and evidence-based.

Formal settings play a significant role in lecturers' learning how to teach. The establishment of centres for teaching and learning and the provision of programmes such as PCAP, ASDP and CRT could benefit lecturers at different levels. At the professional level, lecturers acquire new knowledge and skills on academic practice and become reflective professionals; academically, they pursue higher qualifications such as masters and Ph.D. degrees in higher education; at the individual level they become bold, confident and open and at the group level, they network and articulate teaching and learning ideas in a more structured way. However, this study reveals that there was no systematic strategy for lecturers to learn. The management of private universities in Kenya could develop a more structured system for lecturers' professional development. For example, they could offer a postgraduate certificate, diploma or even a Master's programme in academic practice.

This study established that Deans and Heads of Departments play an important role in the process of lecturers' learning how to teach in both formal and informal settings. Some HoDs encouraged teaching observations and the preparation of course design at departmental level. More Deans and HoDs could champion this course. They could do so by enforcing staff development policies through practices like class observation and mentoring of new staff by 'experienced' lecturers. They could create safe and enabling environments where lecturers share their good practices without feeling constrained. With regard to teaching observation they could encourage use of reflective questions by the observer, instead of the conventional way of 'telling' the feedback to the observed. "Telling" can be intimidating in some cases. Deans and HoDs could provide flexible work schedules to facilitate lecturers to discuss teaching and learning matters with colleagues.

In addition to learning in formal settings, lecturers learn from authentic activity, context and culture in informal settings. The learning curriculum is provided by the lecturers' interactions with students, colleagues and wider society. This study demonstrates the need to implement a systematic strategy that encourages lecturers to learn how to teach

in informal settings. Management could put robust structures in place to enable lecturers to learn how to teach from students, colleagues and industry. In informal settings, lecturers tend to learn from change in work demand requirements such as designing their courses, observe a class at least once a year, mentor other lecturers, co-teach, moderate examinations and carry out formative course evaluation. University administrations could develop an industry attachment policy that would enable lecturers to gain valuable experience. They could also exploit better ways of lecturers utilizing the feedback they receive from industry when they supervise students during industrial attachments. University managements need to create environments that encourage informal conversations between lecturers; between students and lecturers such as having open instead of closed staffrooms; formation of subject groups and students' module or subject leaders who provide lecturers with constructive feedback on a regular basis. Generally, there is a need for continuous support systems in informal settings to enable lecturers implement, internalize and make theories –in-use explicit.

Learning how to teach is a process and not an event. The findings showed that respondents who facilitated sessions on learning how to teach tended to lack time to be available for lecturers to consult with them thereafter. Management at institutional and national levels may sponsor a Trainer of Trainers programme on lecturers' learning how to teach. This could include reducing teaching load and regular consultations.

8.2.1.2 For lecturers

Learning to teach in both formal and in informal settings makes lecturers more efficient and effective. The study established that lecturers contribute towards making learning happen in the following ways: (i) being intentional in attending the programmes and participating in the discussions in formal settings, (ii) learning from various sources in informal settings and (iii) applying the learner-centered approach. Lecturers could take advantage of the enablements available in both formal and informal settings to improve students' learning and grow at a personal and professional level. In either setting, they need to be intentional, high in private self-consciousness and committed in their learning

how to teach. This is possible in instances where lecturers are clear on their 'ultimate concern'.

Lecturers tend to think that the learner-centered approach is about engaging students in group work and group presentations. This study shows that the learner-centered approach entails planning, facilitation of students' participation, assessment and feedback and most importantly course evaluation. Lecturers are likely to learn more and become better teachers if they endeavour to implement all the steps of the learner-centered approach as shown in Figure 5.1.

This study established that lecturers tend to practice scholarly teaching more than the scholarship of teaching and learning. Lecturers in private universities in Kenya may become scholars in the teaching and learning by researching teaching and learning matters individually and collectively. Lecturers could also research at institutional, national and/or at international levels.

Whereas everyone achieves a personal identity, Archer (1995) states that social identity is for specific persons; persons who become actors. Lecturers could work towards acquiring a social identity because it makes them socially significant to students and colleagues. Lecturers could develop a social identity by attending conferences, workshops and seminars on teaching and learning, forming or joining national and international associations and creating collaborations, partnerships and networks.

8.2.1.3 For academic developers

In this study, the teaching and learning conditions, university policy statements and student composition were identified as objective conditions that prompt and challenge lecturers to learn how to teach. However, the study established that whereas one lecturer may view a class of 150 or 170 students as large and therefore a limitation in his or her teaching, another lecturer may not. Thus a one-size-fits all academic development programmes is unlikely to work in cases where structural and cultural limitations that may prompt lecturers to learn are not considered. Academic developers may make the academic programmes more relevant by developing a programme that has content which

is congruent with the lecturers' concerns. University administrations could do this by identifying the needs in a particular context and engaging lecturers in the development of programmes through focus groups.

In the ADPs, the lecturers' physical well-being in their workplace, especially in the classrooms tends to be ignored. This study shows that emotions elicited by students' actions and reactions in class and by students' feedback on various courses, if negative could easily lead to lecturers not wanting to learn. Academic developers may want to incorporate a psychological component in the content of the programmes. Students could also be oriented to the need of applying deep learning approaches as opposed to surface learning approaches. This would enable students to give constructive feedback, resulting in less tension and positive emotions that may cause lecturers to desire to learn how to teach.

Identity formation is about becoming an effective lecturer and it is a lifelong process whose phases and rhythms change as the world changes. A strategy where lecturers develop the practice through departments and teams may be necessary for life-long learning. The study shows that lunch-time book discussions enabled lecturers to read and learn more about the theory on teaching and learning. Some HoDs played a role in supporting group growth. This may require academic developers to begin with a clear idea of what they want lecturers to know, be able to do and become when designing academic staff development programmes for effective lecturers' learning. Academic developers may sustain learning to teach for all lecturers by encouraging them to either learn in formal settings or in informal settings but preferably in both settings. Academic developers may also sustain learning to teach by increasing the number of corporate agents, particularly, at the departmental level.

8.2.2 Theoretical implications

From the conclusions, I have developed new insights on lecturers' learning to teach that extend my previous understanding of lecturers' learning outlined in Chapter 2.

In this study, I applied the morphogenetic approach as a conceptual and methodological framework. Whilst the approach is not specific to any profession, it formed a useful lens through which to analyze lecturers' learning in both formal and informal settings. Extending the morphogenetic approach to lecturers learning shows that it is not just influenced by the 'parts' and/or the people but by the interplay between the structural, cultural and personal emergent properties.

Situated learning theory was also appropriate for examining lecturers' learning in their workplaces. However, Lave and Wenger (1991) suggest that legitimate peripheral participation is a crucial consideration in newcomers' learning trajectory while Wenger (1999) proposes communities of practice as an emergent structure. However, these authorities do not consider the role the individual plays in learning how to teach.

A combination of the two theories is likely to explain lecturers' learning how to teach in both formal and informal settings better. Moreover, Lave and Wenger (1991) do not consider learning in formal settings. Wenger (1999) considers a group of people with the same need as a community of practice. This study went further and considered lecturers as corporate agents (Archer, 1995) who play a crucial role in bringing about more change in lecturers' learning how to teach.

The insights from the two theories in relation to lecturers' learning to teach and their participation in the social world are depicted in Figure 8.1 and outlined as propositions thereafter.

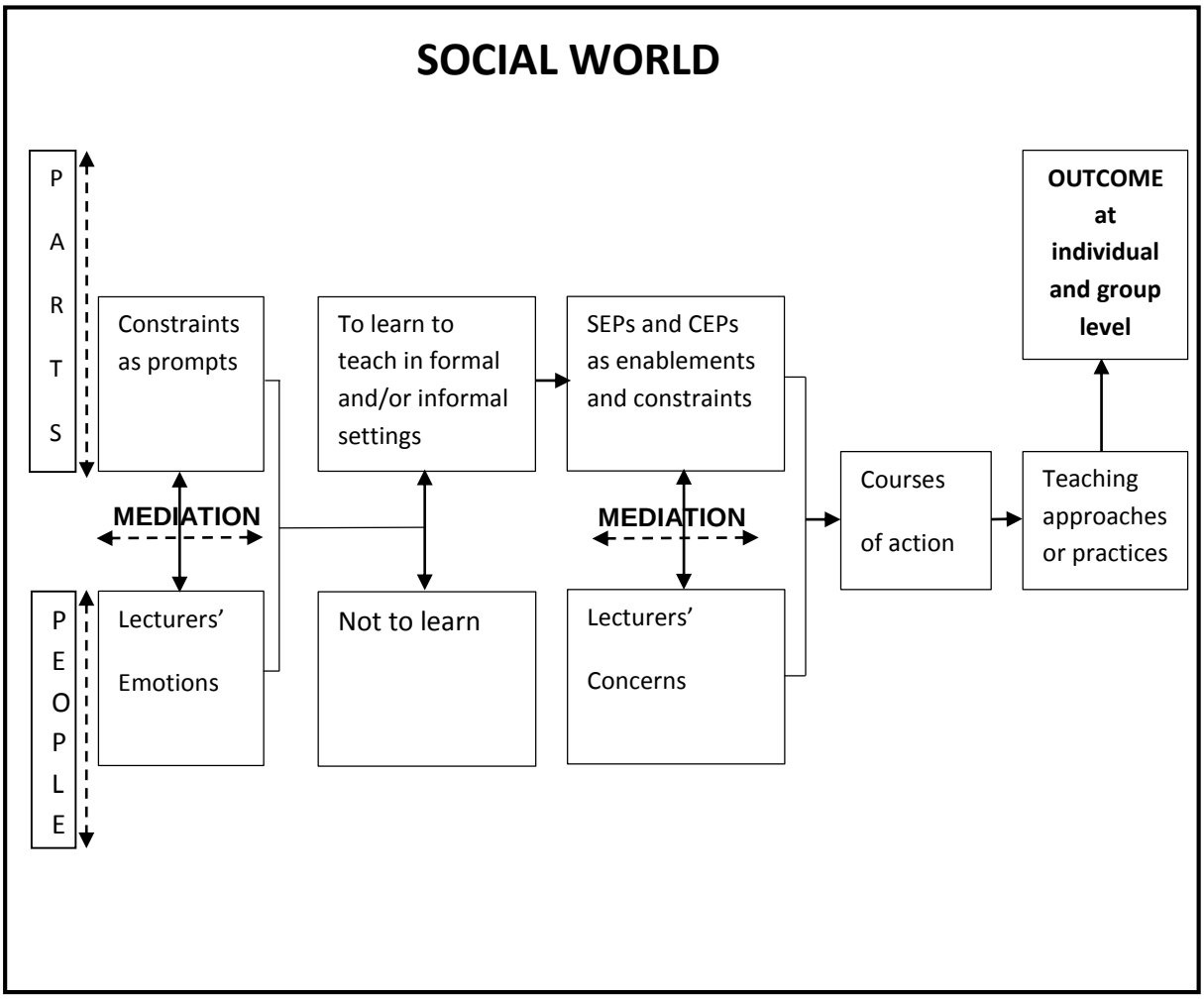

Figure 8.1: A framework for provision for lecturers' learning to teach

In summary, Figure 8.1 shows that learning how to teach takes place in the social world that is made up of the 'parts' and 'people'. The parts are made up of structural and cultural conditions in the formal and informal settings. In informal and formal settings, structural and cultural emergent powers enable, constrain and prompt lecturers learning to teach. Whereas the interplay between the prompts and lecturers' emotions may or may not result in lecturers' learning to teach, the interplay between lecturers' concerns and the enablement and constraints result in various courses of action. These are mediated by lecturers' reflexive deliberations, intentionality, self-commitment, self-consciousness and

self-monitoring. The courses of action may result into practices leading to the outcome at individual and/or group levels.

8.3 Areas for further research

In this study I endeavoured to achieve the following objectives:

1. Determine the outcome of lecturers' learning to how teach in both formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya.
2. Analyze lecturers' accounts of their learning to teach within formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya.
3. Determine the enablements, constraints and prompts in lecturers' learning to teach within formal and informal settings in private universities in Kenya
4. Examine the contribution of lecturers to shaping their learning to teach in private universities in Kenya.
5. Establish implications for a framework for the provision of opportunities for lecturers to learn to teach in private universities in Kenya.

Each of these objectives has been achieved to a large extent but as outlined below further research in this area can lead to an even better understanding of lecturers' learning how to teach in universities from different perspectives.

The findings were specific to private universities in Kenya. It would be worthwhile to extend the study to lecturers' learning to teach in public universities in Kenya or in other universities outside Kenya.

In this study, values such as magnanimity, humility, hospitality and thoughtfulness were established as important in the lecturers' teaching. A study to investigate, in detail, the role such values play in lecturers' learning to teach and in their teaching practices could be carried out.

Emotions such as disappointment and joy are likely to be elicited by students' actions and feedback. This might result in either lecturers wanting or not wanting to learn how to teach.

A detailed study on specific emotions and the role they play in lecturers' learning may be useful in developing a strategy on lecturers' learning how to teach.

According to Archer (1995), corporate agents in comparison to primary agents are likely to play a greater role in bringing about change. In this study, lecturers operated mainly as primary agents. A study on more factors other than programmes such as PCAP and lunch time book discussions that enhance growth of corporate agents may be useful in determining ways of sustaining lecturers' learning how to teach.

Actors possess a unique social identity. Actors derive their social identities from the roles they choose to occupy. Not all lecturers find a role(s) in which they feel they can invest themselves such that the accompanying social identity is expressive of who they are. Investigating conditions that lead some lecturers to become actors while others do not could be an area for further research. Such a study would enable university management to identify the kind of knowledge, skills and values one requires not only to become a lecturer but also a facilitator.

In this study, reflexive deliberations were essential in mediating the objective and subjective emergent powers. However, an in depth study on how lecturers in Kenya reflexively survey the three orders of reality; the various type of reflexivity that lecturers practice, that is, autonomous, communicative, meta- and fractured reflexivity would add another perspective to explain lecturers' learning how to teach.

8.4 Limitations and strengths of the study

The study had some limitations.

Use of critical realism to understand why lecturers learn to teach would have enriched the study as it would have been more critical. However, the study applied social realism as the focus was to examine how lecturers learn to teach.

The sample in this study was made up of lecturers from private universities. Students' perspective about their learning and interviewing lecturers from public universities would have further enriched the study. However, including public universities would have

widened the scope. As suggested above lecturers' learning how to teach in public universities could be an area for further research.

Although interviews and observations were adequate to collect data, other data collection methods such as focus groups where respondents would have shared findings could have enriched the study. However, bringing lecturers from different universities and even the same university was not possible due to their different schedules.

Delineating the data into various phases when applying the morphogenetic approach was not 100% possible due to the generative mechanisms of PEPs, CEPs and SEPs. They intertwine and spill over. So placing them in specific phases was limiting.

This study had a number of strengths when compared to other studies on lecturers' learning how to teach.

Previous studies on lecturers' learning how to teach have considered learning to teach either in formal settings or informal settings but not both. This study analyzed lecturers' learning how to teach in both formal and informal settings and how these may interrelate in depth and with reference to the systemic conditions that influence them. Because of this, the study was able to show that these two are not in contrast or conflict.

Previous studies' focus has been mainly on the effect of programmes on lecturers' teaching and students' learning. The studies mainly concentrated on the 'parts' and not the 'people'. In addition to analyzing structural and emergent properties in lecturers' learning how to teach, the study went further to determine lecturers' contribution to shaping their learning to teach. I also looked at the generative mechanisms in more depth.

Lastly, a few studies in the education sector have been carried out in Kenya. However, they concentrate on teacher education in primary and secondary schools, leadership and management, financing, access, gender disparity and quality issues mainly in public universities. A few studies on private universities investigate public perceptions of private universities and their growth. Some of them are also out of date as the university sector in Kenya is undergoing dynamic transformation. This study provides information on

professional development of lecturers, an area that has been scantly researched, in private universities in Kenya.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questions (Sample question for 3 lecturers, randomly picked)

PI: Luma

1. How has your teaching changed since you learned that you have to be an effective teacher?
2. How did you get into teaching what you are teaching now?
3. What made you think about the Methodology you used?
4. How important is industry experience to teaching?
5. Do you solicit feedback from students?
6. How else do you expand your knowledge?

P2: Jebu

1. What type of learning took place in your previous teaching station?
2. What was right or wrong with the feedback?
3. You said something that you had to understand the language of the student, what did you mean by that?
4. What led to your thinking of a language that students need to understand?
5. When you talk about feedback, what do you mean?
6. Did the same problem occur when you moved to the current station?
7. What have you learnt from your students?
8. How have you learnt from external examiners?
9. How have you learnt from the other lecturers?
10. Have you mentored any of your colleagues?
11. How have you worked with colleagues at subject level?
12. What is the relationship between theory and practice?
13. Have you translated your learning style to students?
14. Did you learn this from staff development programme?
15. How do you think consciously and deliberately?
16. How do you document your teaching?
17. What drove you into teaching?

18. How has the University assisted you in your learning?

P12: Jos

1. How did you get into teaching?
2. Should universities spend time training their lecturers on how to teach?
3. Do you think the PCAP participants are performing better in their teaching?
4. What was your teaching approach before PCAP and how has it changed now?
5. There is this issue of slow learners and mature students, how do you take care of their interests?
6. How do you move students using surface learning approaches to deep learning approach?
7. What drove you into the teaching?
8. You have taught in a primary school as well as street children. What would you say is the driving force behind your teaching?
9. What were some of the benefits of participating in the peer observation program?
10. Have you learnt anything from your consultancy work?
11. How has it been useful in your teaching?
12. Do you ever invite people from the industry into your classes?
13. Has it helped you in your grow as a lecturer?
14. There is this issue of sustainability and you remember in my introduction I said that the problem has been how to sustain lecturers learning at the work place? How do we sustain this learning in our Universities?
15. I am thinking of these lecturers who attend the sessions on how to teach but come beginning of the semester they have too many hours to teach, what happens to them?
16. Apart from learning from the centre of teaching and learning, my theory is that we learn a lot from students, colleagues, and from the industry. What comment do you have on lecturers' collaborations with students, colleagues and industry?
17. How has the university and your department enabled and/or constrained your learning how to teach?

Appendix 2: My introduction to all interviews

'I have been working with lecturers on their learning (professional growth) since 2007. In 2009/2010, I coordinated the Postgraduate Certificate Programme (PCAP) offered by York St Johns University in UK to thirty-five participants from five Kenyan universities. I would like to find out how useful PCAP has been in your teaching and how you continue learning to teach. I have also been conducting a two week Academic Staff Development Programme (ASDP) for lecturers in my university since 2009 and short courses over a period of three months (For those from other universities, I mentioned what had been happening in their universities in terms of lecturers' learning to teach as I had already discussed it with the respective directors). The question that some lecturers ask after the training is, what next? This made me think of finding out what lecturers do after the training and how learning to teach can be sustained in workplaces? All that you need to tell me is how you have grown as a lecturer'.

Appendix 3: List of participants

Participant	University	Gender	Department/Faculty
P1: Luma	ABC	F	Humanities
P2: Jebu	ABC	F	Humanities
P3: Kal	ABC	M	Commerce
P4: Raka	ABC	F	Commerce
P5: Neth	ABC	F	Humanities
P6: Gel	ABC	F	Commerce
P7: Bor	ABC	M	Commerce
P8: Riso	ABC	M	Mathematics
P9: Sey	DJK	F	Communication
P10: Dref	TJR	M	Languages
P11: Mij	TJR	M	Information Technology
P12: Jos	TJR	M	Psychology
P13: Tas	ABC	M	Information Technology

P14: Eca	DJK	F	Communication
P15: Mao	MUN	F	Humanities
P16: Demu	ABC	M	Information Technology
P17: Rau	ABC	M	Languages
P18: Ane	MUN	F	Counseling
P19: Nep	DJK	M	Engineering
P20: Rasa	TJR	F	Education
P21: Daw	ABC	M	Hospitality and Tourism
P22: Dia	ABC	F	Accountancy
P23: Romu	ABC	F	Commerce
P24: Kahe	MUN	M	Mathematics
P25: Theo	DJK	M	Communication

Appendix 4

Codelist 1: First cycle coding (A sample)

Code-Filter: All

HU: CODING 2
File: [C:\Users\Mary Omingo\Documents\Scientific Software\ATLASti\TextBank\CODING 2.hpr7]
Edited by: Super
Date/Time: 2013-02-21 16:16:59

Agency/exercising Agency/structure Background	Formal/intentional Future plans	students' feedback- forms students' feedback- process

Commitment Concern Congruence Constraint Definitions Deliberation Department Discernment Enablements First time teaching	Incongruence Learning from moderators learning from practitioner Learning from research findings Learning from students Learning from teachers Learning from the class/subject Learning intentional Learning process learning resources learning/teaching process	students' feedback-value students' learning students' understanding students' learning abroad students learning students learning-negative students learning-positive

<u>Appendix 4b</u>: Codelist 2, Second cycle coding (A sample)

HU: CODING 2

File: [C:\Users\Mary Omingo\Documents\Scientific Software\ATLASti\TextBank\CODING 2.hpr7]

Edited by: Super

Date/Time: 2013-09-14 22:01:07

CONCERNS	LEARNING	P-PEERS
concerns-Affective domain	Learning-colleagues-negative	PE-curriculum design
concerns-Further studies-Apply knowledge, make knowledge explicit	Learning-consultancy	PE-formal-advantages
concerns-Make a difference	Learning-defined	PE-formal-limitations
concerns-Not interested in teaching	Learning-informal	PE-informal-advantages
concerns-Reaction to new places	Learning-reflection	PE-informal-limitations
concerns-Shift in concerns	Learning-students	PE-learning/teaching process
concerns-Students' learning	Learning-from Academic devt programs	PE-scholarship of teaching
concerns-The university ethos	Learning-from books	PE-subject-content
Congruence	learning-from colleagues	PE-the practice
	Learning-from practitioner	
	Learning-from research findings	

Appendix 4c: Code Families/Categories (A sample)

Code Families

HU: CODING 2
File: [F:\MARY OMINGO\mamiez work\FLASHDISK\mrs omingo\CODING 2.hpr7]
Edited by: Super
Date/Time: 2015-10-03 11:18:15

Code Family: Concerns
Created: 2013-03-02 11:51:33 (Super)
Codes (8): [concerns-Affective domain] [concerns-Further studies- Apply knowledge, make knowledge explicit] [concerns-Make a difference] [concerns-Not interested in teaching] [concerns-Reaction to new places] [concerns-Shift in concerns] [concerns-Students' learning] [concerns-The university ethos]
Quotation(s): 23

Code Family: Constraints
Created: 2013-04-15 22:20:56 (Super)
Codes (19): [Constraint- ASDP content-facilitator] [Constraint-class size/composition] [Constraint-course content and students] [Constraint-Dean] [Constraint-different staffrooms] [Constraint-institution] [Constraint-lack of common rooms] [Constraint-lack of forums] [Constraint-lack of induction] [Constraint-lack of resources] [Constraint-lack of trust] [Constraint-language barrier] [Constraint-Mis conception] [Constraint-other responsibilities] [Constraint-part timers] [Constraint-policy] [Constraint-Students' response to course evaluation] [Constraint-time] [Constraint-too many semesters]
Quotation(s): 49

Code Family: Learning-Peers
Created: 2013-02-11 10:33:03 (Super)
Codes (8): [PE-curriculum design] [PE-formal-advantages] [PE-formal-limitations] [PE-informal-advantages] [PE-informal-limitations] [PE-learning/teaching process] [PE-scholarship of teaching] [PE-subject-content]
Quotation(s): 34

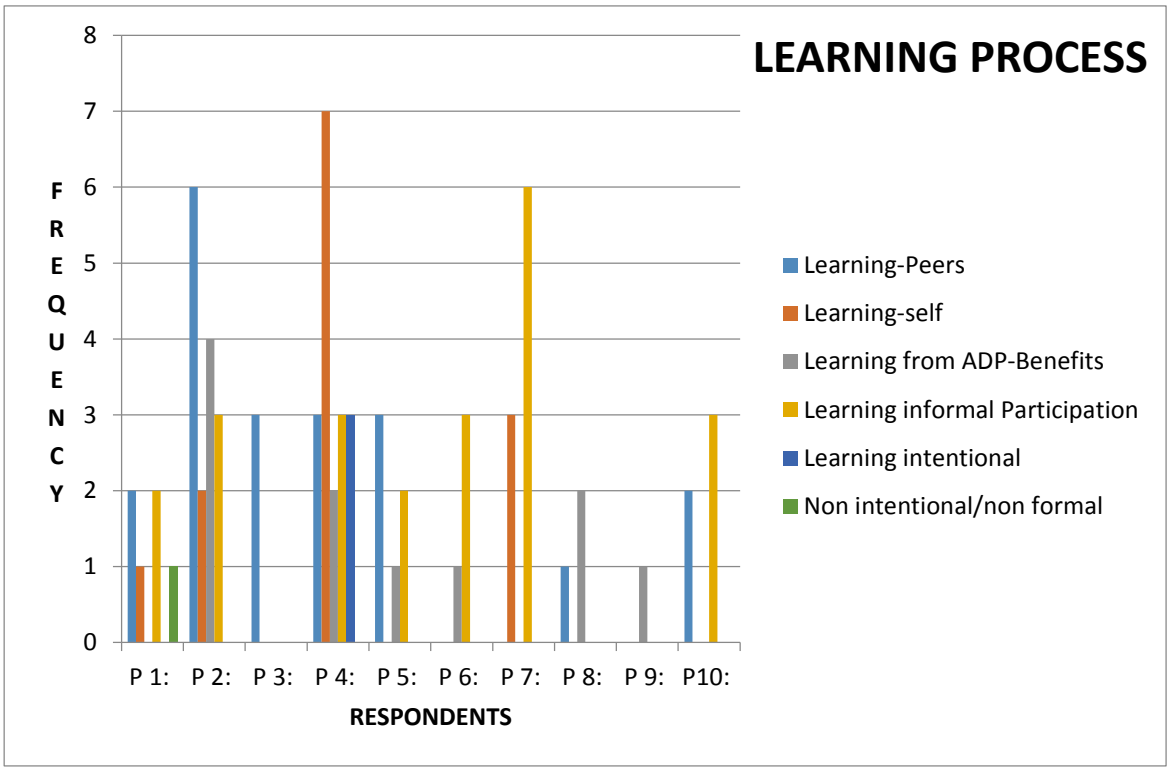
Appendix 5: Code book (Extract)

CODE	DESCRIPTION/ SIGNIFICANCE	CATEGORIES	EXAMPLE	FREQUENCY
Learner-centered: RQ2	Lecturers' understanding of student-centered approach Learning to teach is more about students-centered approach. It is important for the study. Knowing what Kenyan lecturers say about learner-centered will be useful to the study.	• Interactive • Variation of methods • Inclusivity • Constructive alignment • Knowing students in depth • Beyond the grade	I make my lectures very interactive, full of stories as well. They also have serious moments where I teach but also moments when students also teach. I would say a variation of methodology of teaching so that it is not just me talking all the time.	11

Appendix 6a: Primary-document tables (PD-Tables)

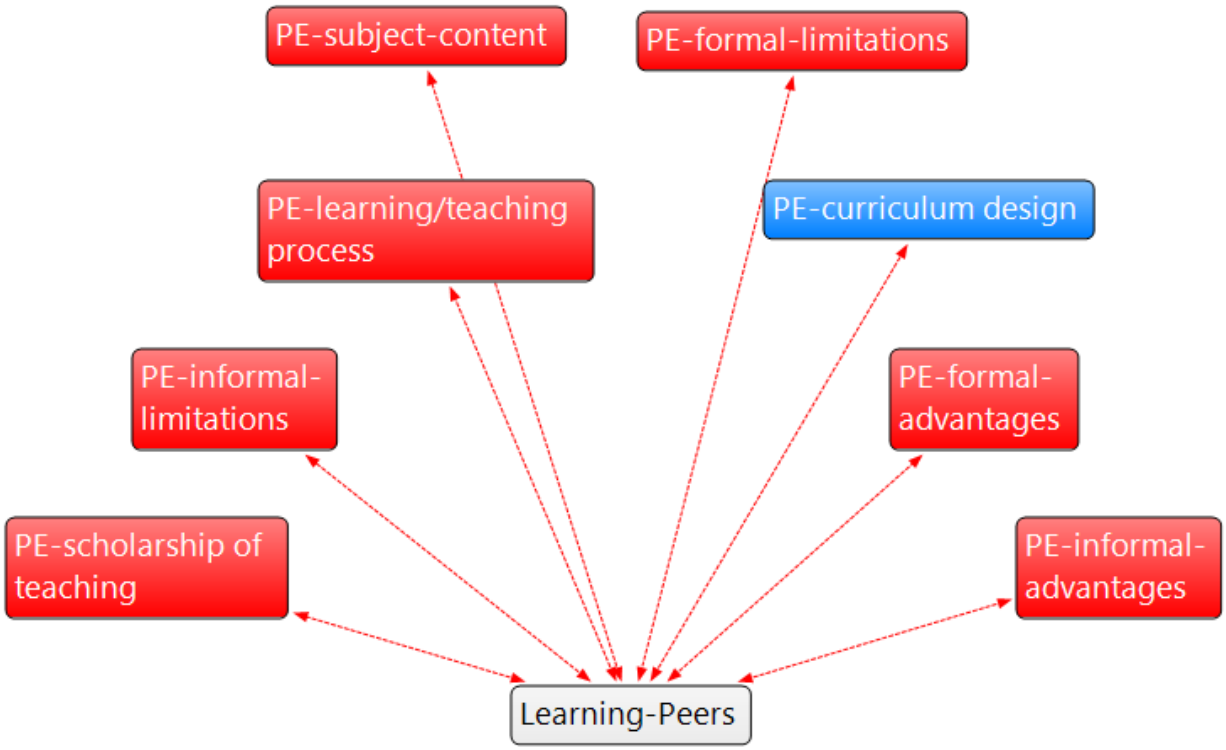
	PARTICIPANTS									
CODES	P 1	P2	P 3	P 4	P 5	P 6	P 7	P 8	P9	**TOTALS**
Learning-Peers	2	6	3	3	3	0	0	1	2	20
Learning-self	1	2	0	7	0	0	3	0	0	13
Learning from ADP-Benefits	0	4	0	2	1	1	0	2	0	11
Learning informal Participation	2	3	0	3	2	3	6	0	3	22
Learning intentional	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	3
Non intentional/non formal	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
TOTALS	6	15	3	18	6	4	9	3	5	70

Appendix 6b: Bar chart, frequency of codes per respondent

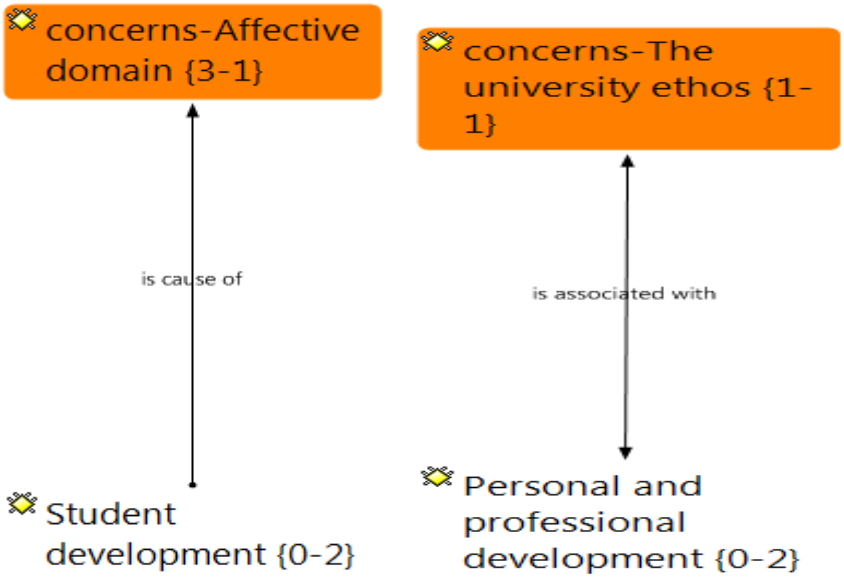


Appendix 7: Network Views

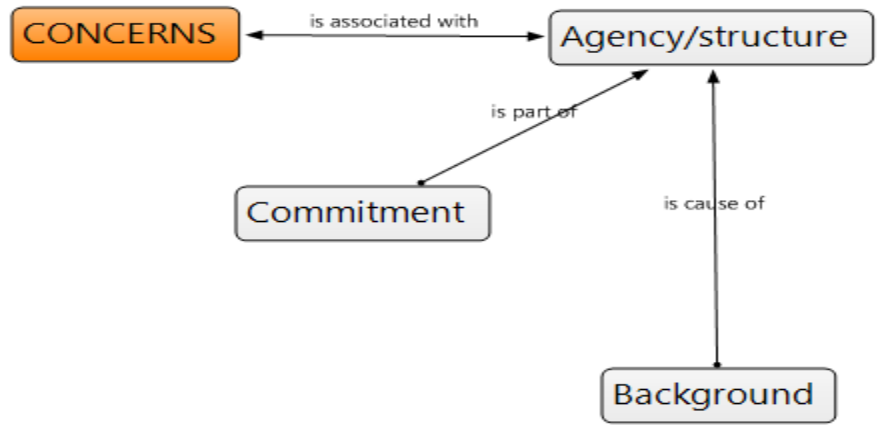
Appendix 7a



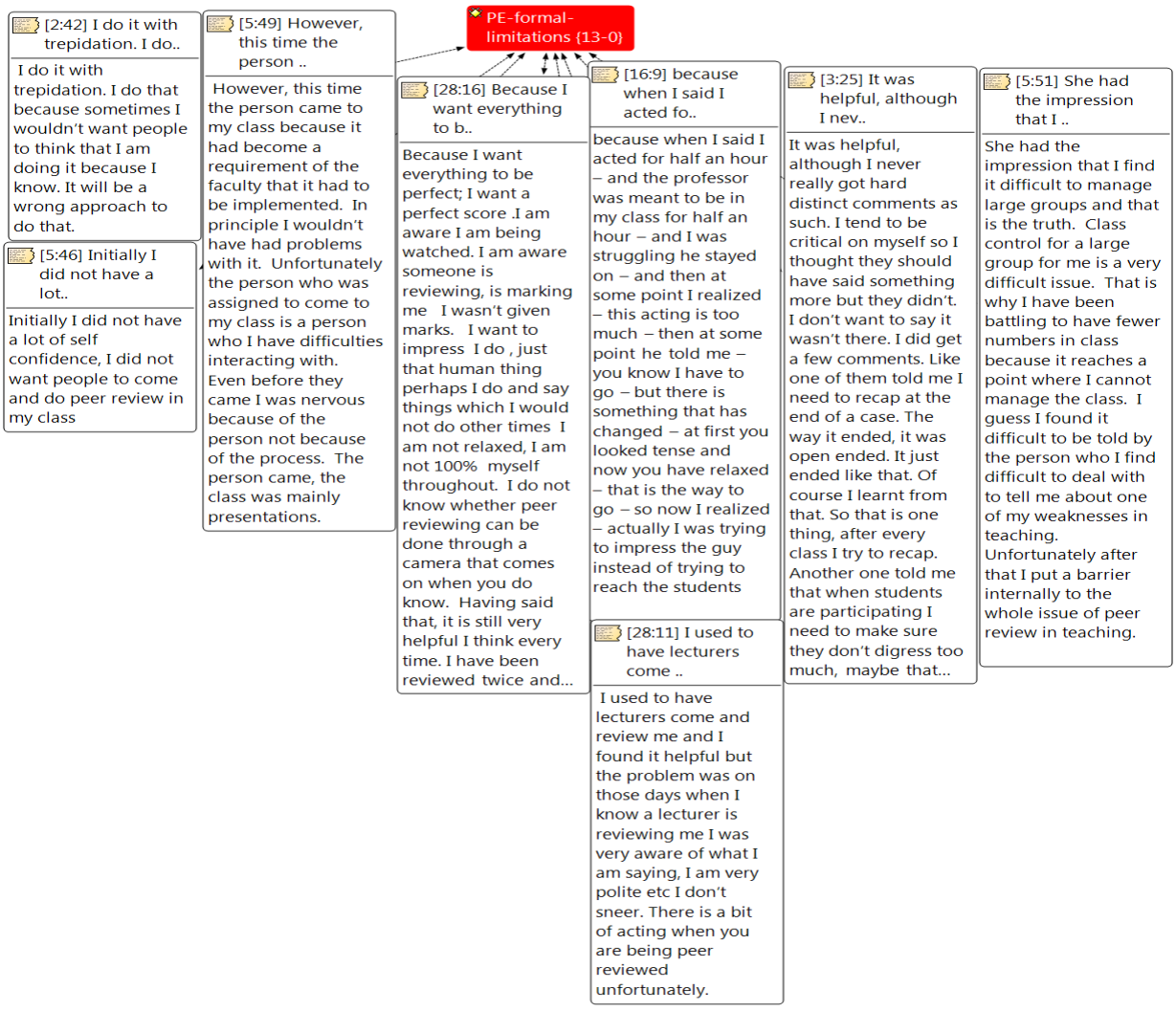
Appendix 7b



Appendix 7c



Appendix 7d



Appendix 8: Reports (A sample)

Report: 16 quotation(s) for 1 code

HU: CODING 2

File: [C:\Users\Mary Omingo\Documents\Scientific Software\ATLASti\TextBank\CODING 2.hpr7]

Edited by: Super

Date/Time: 2013-07-02 19:06:26

Mode: quotation list names and references

Quotation-Filter: All

Learning process

P 1: Luma - 1:86 [I have to say this though, in ..] (23:23) (Super)

Codes: [Learning process] [Non intentional/non formal]

I have to say this though, in my head I remember thinking, do lecturers learn? And I thought, I do not go to class with an intention of learning. It has never occurred to me that when am walking to class that am learning, and yet I do learn when I go to class. My learning is accidental though. Even though over the last few years and every time I walk in and out I learn, it is never my intention. It affects my future planning. The students walk in with the intention of learning while my intention is different. My intention is to teach them something. But somewhere there is an interaction that happens. When you said, 'I want to know how lecturers learn' I thought I do not go to class to learn. Any learning that happens is accidental. ACCIDENTAL/NON-INTENTIONAL/INFORMAL

P 4: Raka - 4:30 [For TPM 2, I was actually aske..] (32:32) (Super)

Codes: [Learning process]

No memos

For Teaching the Practice of Management (TPM 2), I was actually asked to go and represent the Deans, so I actually went for the Deans Meeting and then decided to stay on for TPM 2. What was interesting then is that because I had been to TPM 1 I knew what to expect, I knew what the lecturers were going to do, so I was a bit more prepared or more conscious of what was going on. I think in TPM 1 it was like we have read cases we have discussed them so what? I never really understood the objective; it wasn't clear what we were doing. At least TPM 2 it was clearer. FORMAL/INTENTIONAL/USEOF CASES

Appendix 9: Memos

MEMO: constraints (0 Quotations) (Super, 2013-04-15 21:28:24)

Type: CODE LIST

Constraint- ASDP content-facilitator

Constraint-course content and students

Constraint-Mis conception

Constraint-time

Constraint-lack of common rooms

Constraint-language barrier

Constraint-class size/composition

Constraint-different staffrooms

Constraint-Dean

Constraint-lack of resources

Constraint-lack of trust

Constraint-too many semesters

Constraint-Students' response to course evaluation

MEMO: Formal Learning (1 Quotation) (Super, 2014-02-04 12:42:54)

Type: CODE LIST

B-Benefit L-Limitation I- Importance C-Constraint

Learning

Lea-Challenging our methods of teaching-B

Lea- Learned about students' learning-B

Lea- Exposure to more learning/ the need to want to learn more/risk taker-B

Lea-Relieves the teaching burden/share with the students-B

Lea- Provides opportunity to share with colleagues-B

Lea- Learning new methods/skills-B

Lea-Learning contemporary issues/ up to date knowledge-B

The above category was further analyzed into:

- Forms
- The need
- Benefits
- Implementation
- Challenges
- Limitations

MEMO: Implementation-ADP (0 Quotations) (Super, 2014-02-13 10:13:03)

Content of the training

Assessment for learning

Preparation of course outline

Applying formative assessment in lecturers' assessment

Applying learner centeredness; that was the objective of the whole training, a paradigm shift from teacher centered to learner centeredness:

Uniqueness of the student irrespective of the programme

Planning for learning activities- Participatory is not negotiable

Bringing other people from other departments (library, ITD) on board

Using a variety of engaging methods- Buzz, Jigsaw, group discussions, pairing up

Practicing peer observation

Facilitating sessions on ASDP

Presenting papers at conferences

MEMOs: Summary/reflection on the transcriptions

***Tas* (0 Quotations) (Super, 2013-09-13 09:51:25)**

He defines learning as moving from teacher to learner centeredness where he is a facilitator. He has mainly learned through formal courses, both academic and professional. Informally he has learned from colleagues and students. He has also learned a lot from cases, he has been involved in case writing, learning and teaching. He has gone further to include debates in his cases to reduce what he refers to as 'case fatigue'.

The methodology

The lecturers meet before the session to discuss on the number, relevance and length of cases that will be used in teaching a particular group. The students are taken through case teaching by the lecturers and a student who has experienced case learning. Students are grouped in syndicate groups which act as support groups. He learns from students' experiences with the cases, through problems that they encounter in their work places and through consultancy.

There is need to create expansive environments. While case studies work well for post-graduates students and executives as their participation is high, they might not work for other groups.

The exposure to a number of trainings has improved his teaching

01/21/2014 01:19:21 PM

Dia

There is need to come up with a way to reduce/increase the learning curve for new lecturers. In line with.....New lecturers are still grappling with content and self-confidence to increase their inbound trajectories to full participation

My thoughts

The way forward,' proper' induction

Learning from students should be intentional

02/05/2014 06:40:26 PM

Demu

Mentoring is a structure conditioning him but it is until he decides 'why not' that it become useful to him. The mentoring conditioned him, his personal powers (agency)emerged and through the social interaction with the other lecturer, he elaborated the structure

Informal learning from the students reinforced formal learning

The new course (structure) constrained him from drafting ILOs but with time it enabled him realize the need to restructure the course and he drafted the lLOs.

MEMO: Mao (0 Quotations) (Super, 2013-09-17 16:47:18)

Type: Commentary

Her main way of assisting students to learn is through a teaching portfolio. She believes that peoples' abilities differ and some can still do well given time to explain what they do everyday instead of a few hours of examination.

She has mainly learned from networking but she is a go getter. Learning from networks conferences has been the main source of learning.

Her interview is mainly from the structure point of view. I will get back once I read structure.

MEMO: Methodology- Formal settings (0 Quotations) (Super, 2014-02-10 16:32:36)

Type: Commentary

02/10/2014 04:32:47 PM

One of the codes under learning in formal settings especially from staff development programs was importance of ADP.

I analyzed it into four levels. I found it was important at four levels: university, professional, individual and discipline/subject. As I checked through the quotations under each level, I realized that Learning in formal settings serves the following purposes. It is:

- Propagation in the university's mission and goals
- Pedagogical in terms of learning new methods, structuring the content etc Small things matter and do the interesting things in class. What is not interesting it can be done outside class

- Transformational -university's teaching philosophy; learner centered approach Vs Teacher centered
- Psychological-Consoling during the sharing, comforting to know that what you have been doing is correct, gain confidence, satisfying; students' comments
- Developmental: Refresher course, updates the teaching and learning methods, makes one relevant
- Validation - legitimizes what one has been doing

Appendix 10: Consent to participate

UNIVERSITEIT•STELLENBOSCH•UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

TOPIC: TOWARDS SUSTAINABLE LECTURERS' LEARNING TO TEACH IN PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Mary Omingo, a lecturer at Strathmore University and a doctoral student, from the department of Education at Stellenbosch University. The results will be contributed to her thesis. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are in charge of academic affairs at your university.

1. **PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

to examine, from a realist social perspective and based on lecturers own accounts, on how lecturers learn to teach in private universities in Kenya.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

- The DVC academic affairs and the person in charge of teaching and learning (if any) to be interviewed on how you support lecturers' learning at your university
- To allow Mary Omingo to interview at least five of your lecturers
- The lecturers will be interviewed to tell their learning stories; how they learn to teach in formal and in informal settings. Class observations will also be used in collecting more data

2. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

No risk foreseen at the moment but some lecturers might be uncomfortable by the intrusion of the researcher in their teaching and learning domain. The ones willing to participate will be informed about any inconveniences and discomforts well in advance.

3. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

Lecturers

They will be able to collaborate with the stakeholders: the students, colleagues, community, the industry and academic developers in their workplaces to sustain their learning. In the process they will improve their teaching and enhance the students' learning experience.

University Management

The study will be useful to university management in that it will enable them see the need of improving the students' learning experience through lecturers' learning to teach. It will enable management to realize the need of their support for staff development and how lecturers' learning to teach leads to efficient utilization of resources and successful teaching. The universities will also position themselves in the market as by sustaining lecturers learning in their workplaces, the most important asset, they will gain competitive advantage in their core business; teaching and learning.

Quality assurance bodies

The study will also be useful to quality assurance bodies such as:

- Inter University Council of East Africa (IUCEA) and Commission of University Education (CUE) in Kenya, in addressing quality issues (Curriculum development and implementation) in teaching in higher education.
- Kenya Bureau of Standards may find the study useful for auditing academic issues.

The Ministry of Higher Education

The government is interested in universities teaching students to be job creators and not job seekers. The study will assist them in developing policies governing higher education teachers' learning in their workplaces to achieve the education pillar in the Vision 2030.

Academic Development Units/ Centers of teaching and learning

It will enable developers of academic staff in universities to come up with more strategic ways of sustaining lecturers' learning in their workplaces.

Other researchers

They will have information on lecturers learning in higher education in Africa.

4. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

There will be no payment for participation

5. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of using codes instead of real names.

Any audio or video tape will be listened to or watched by the respondent and deleted after the analysis

The data collected will be confidentially kept on the researcher's laptop which has a password. The researcher will have to publish papers from the analysis in various journals

and thus will have no control at that point. However, the analysis of data will be target a group of lecturers instead of individuals and the pseudonyms will be used instead of the participants' names.

6. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

7. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact : Mary Omingo at Strathmore University on 6006155 or 0733596537, email address momingo@strathmore.edu or Professor Brenda Leibowitz, email address is "Leibowitz, Brenda" <BLEIBOWITZ@sun.ac.za> at Stellenbosch University

8. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

The information above was described to me by Mary Omingo in English and I am in command of this language. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study and that the person in charge of faculty development and the lecturers may participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

_____

Name of Subject/Participant

_____

Name of Legal Representative (if applicable)

_____ _____

Signature of Subject/Participant or Legal Representative **Date**

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____

He was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in English and no translator was used.

_____ _____

Signature of Investigator Date

Appendix 10 b: CONSENT FORM (FOR INDIVIDUALS)

Title of Research Project: Towards Sustainable Lecturers' Learning to Teach in Private Universities in Kenya

Name and position of researcher:

Mary Omingo, PHD Student at Stellenbosch University Cape Town

By signing below, I agree to the following statements

1. I have read and understood the attached information sheet giving details of the project.
2. I have had the opportunity to ask the researcher any question that I had about the project and any involvement in it and I understand my role in the project.
3. My decision to consent is entirely voluntary and I understand that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason.
4. I understand that the data gathered in this project may for the basis of a report or form of publication or presentation.
5. I understand that my name will not be used in any report, publication or presentation and that every effort will be made to protect confidentiality.

Name of Participant_____ Date _____ Signature _____

Mary Omingo (Researcher) Date _____ Signature _____

Appendix 11: Ethics Clearance form

l) **Unexpected information**: If unexpected, unsolicited data is revealed during the process of research, data will be kept confidential and will only be revealed if required by law.	**Yes** √	**NS**	**No**	If YES: Proceed with checklist. If NO/NS: Consult on this matter with DESC. Continue with checklist.
m) **Emergency situations**: If an unexpected emergency situation is revealed during the research, whether it is caused by my research or not, it will immediately be reported to my supervisor/promotor and Departmental Chair for further advice.	**Yes** √	**NS**	**No**	If YES: Proceed with checklist. If NO/NS: Consult on this matter with DESC. Continue with checklist.
n) **Permission to use archival data**: [When applicable] Is permission granted from the custodian of the archive to use it.	**Yes** √	**NS**	**No**	If YES: Proceed with checklist. If NO/NS: Consult on this matter with DESC. Continue with checklist.
o) **The archive itself does not pose problems**: [When applicable] The initial conditions under which the archive originated allow you as a third party researcher to use the material in the archive.	**Yes** √	**NS**	**No**	If YES, proceed with checklist. If NO/NS: Consult on this matter with DESC. Continue with checklist.
7. Conflict of interest				
Is the researcher aware of any actual or potential conflict of interest in his/her proceeding with this research?	**Yes**	**NS**	**No** √	If YES/NS: Identify concerns, attach details of steps to manage them, and refer to DESC for assessment and advice. If NO: No further action required, except signing the declaration and the checklist, and submitting it to the DESC with supporting documentation.

DECLARATION BY RESEARCHER:
I hereby declare that I will conduct my research in compliance with the professional code(s) of ethics and guidelines for ethically responsible research relevant to my field of study as specified in the list herewith attached, AND the 'Framework policy for the assurance and promotion of ethically accountable research at Stellenbosch University', even if my research poses minimal or low ethical risk.

Print name of Researcher: Mary Omingo	**Signature of Researcher**
Date **3/7/2012**	3/7/2012

Print name of Supervisor	**Signature of Supervisor**
Date	

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